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PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM INGLÊS E LITERATURA CORRESPONDENTE

ENUMERABLES: A PRAGMATIC STUDY OF  
UNSPECIFIC PLURAL NOUNS IN WRITTEN TEXT

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## ABSTRACT

This dissertation offers a pragmatic study of a special kind of Unspecific, (Winter, 1989) plural nouns. Firstly, they are analysed within Tadros's (1985) Model of Predictive Categories and from here the original scope is enlarged. Secondly, an analysis and taxonomy of the two major types of Enumerables: System and Technical are offered. Thirdly, Enumerables are examined within Winter and Hoey's Model of Discourse Organization, where their role as discourse organizers is shown. Finally, conclusions and suggestions for further research are presented.

## RESUMO

Essa dissertação oferece um estudo pragmático de um tipo especial de substantivos plurais não-específicos (Winter, 1989). Num primeiro momento, esses substantivos são analisados de acordo com o modelo de Categorias de Predição de Tadros (1985) e, a partir daí, o conceito original é ampliado. Num segundo momento, são oferecidas uma análise e uma taxonomia dos dois tipos de "Enumerables": "System" e "Technical". Num terceiro momento, os "Enumerables" são analisados de acordo com o Modelo de Organização do Discurso de Winter (1977, 1980, 1989) e Hoey (1979, 1983), onde esses substantivos plurais se apresentam como organizadores do discurso. Finalmente, conclusões e sugestões para pesquisas futuras são apresentadas.

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## INTRODUCTION

In the last few years several authors have begun to deal with the hazy issue of discourse organization. Some of them, Quirk (1972), Halliday and Hasan (1976), and Grimes (1976), for instance, hinted at the fact that open-set items such as nouns can act as discourse organizers, a role traditionally attributed in linguistics to subordinators and conjuncts.

Among these authors Winter (1977, 1980, 1989) and Hoey (1979, 1983) stand out because their studies of discourse focus specially on those often neglected discourse organizers. Their approach to text has two merits: one is that they have looked at text organization at and beyond inter-sentence level; and the other is that they have shown the close connection that exists between content and organization on the grounds that discourse is semantically organized. As suggested, their work aimed at finding out and systematizing discourse organizers, which they

called 'lexical signals'.

Also following Winter and Hoey's line, two other authors are worth mentioning here. The first one is Tadros (1985) who delineated precise discourse categories looking for 'predictive signals' in text. The second is Francis (1987). Her study of A-nouns identified some metadiscursive nouns that work anaphorically 'signalling' different parts in an argument.

The present dissertation continues this line of Discourse Analysis by investigating a special type of 'lexical signalling'. The following is Hoey's (1979) definition of 'lexical signalling':

Lexical signals are the author's explicit signalling of the intended organization (emphasis added) and they are therefore of primary importance; it is probable that they are one of the means whereby a reader/listener decodes a discourse correctly.

The focus of my dissertation is certain kinds of plural nouns that predict enumerations. Mine is a continuation of the work of Tadros who identified and gave them the label of Enumerables.

The basic hypothesis is that Enumerables are important organizational devices, ie what Winter and Hoey call 'lexical signals'. In order to demonstrate my hypothesis I divide my analysis into three parts (which correspond to the three chapters of my dissertation). First, I present Enumerables within Tadros's framework of Prediction in order to show what Enumerables are and as a consequence why and how they predict Enumerations. This first path leads me to the second where I

investigate the semantico-pragmatic function of Enumerables. Finally, I attempt to place Enumerables within Winter and Hoey's framework of Discourse Analysis to reach my basic goal which is to demonstrate that Enumerables are 'organizational devices'.

### Data

Scientific discourse seemed on intuitive grounds a fertile source of data of Enumerables. For this reason most of the data I collected comes from Linguistic texts (books, papers, articles). Besides, I also included data from Anthropology, Language Methodology, Literary Criticism and other varied sources. There is a list of the Source Bibliography at the end of my dissertation.

## CHAPTER I

### FROM TADROS TOWARDS A REDEFINITION OF ENUMERABLES

#### THE PREDICTIVE VALUE OF ENUMERABLES

In this first chapter I attempt to explain how certain plural nouns predict Enumerations. First, I present them within Tadros's framework of Prediction. After that, I redefine the original definition by describing the different 'environments' in which they appear and by suggesting the existence of two types of Enumerables: System and Technical. Furthermore, I present a detailed description of the modifiers of Enumerables as well as a traditional syntactic analysis of their 'Environments' and of the Enumerations predicted by them.

### 1.1. Tadros's Framework of Predicting Categories and the Concept of 'Enumerables'

The term Enumerables is drawn from Tadros' monograph Prediction in Text, a shortened version of her doctoral dissertation Linguistic Prediction in Economic Text at the University of Birmingham, where she presents her Predicting Model. In order to understand this concept (and later on understand the redefinition that I made of it), it is necessary to look at Enumerables within Tadros's framework.

Basic to Tadros's model is the notion of prediction. She defines it as follows: 'certain signals in a text predict the occurrence of particular linguistic events' (p.5). This is an example from Tadros illustrating Prediction.

- (1) Before discussing this question further, however, it is necessary to define consumers' and producers' goods.
- (2) Consumers' goods. The ultimate aim of production is to provide consumers with those goods that yield them satisfaction.
- (3) These are goods in the form in which they are wanted.
- (4) ...
- (5) Producers' goods. Unlike consumers' goods, these are not desired for their own sake, but only because of the assistance they render to the production of other goods.
- (6) They comprise ...
- (7) ... (p.56)

(Tadros, 1985:5)

According to Tadros, Sentence (1) "has an item define which predicts the occurrence of the act named, ie defining. The prediction is fulfilled in the piece of text that follows under

the two headings: 'consumers' goods' and 'producers' goods'" (pp.5-6). And then she adds that "what is predicted is not an element of syntactic structure, but a discourse item whose fulfillment transcends the boundaries of the sentence" (p.6).

The notion of Prediction is based on the assumption that 'written text is interactive'. Tadros suggests that this is so because 'two participants are involved; writer and reader' (p.6), although because of the nature of written text itself 'the writer assumes the roles of both addressor and addressee and incorporates the interaction within the encoding process itself' (ibid.). Therefore, whenever there is a signal of Prediction 'the writer is committed to a certain course of action' such as 'to define' in the example presented above, and 'it is by virtue of the signal that the reader will be able to recognize the commitment' (ibid.). For Tadros, moreover, 'Prediction is binding, it is more in the nature of a legal contract, where predictive signals are the writer's signature confirming that he is committed to what he has said he will do' (ibid.).

Consequently, Prediction establishes a relationship between a predictive item, which has the signal that commits the writer to predict, and a predicted item, which fulfills the commitment. For methodological reasons, Tadros creates some terms for the units of analysis of her model which are in order of size: pair, member and sentence. The pair is constituted by two members: the predictive one (V member) and the predicted one (D member). Thus, according to Tadros, 'the term member is used to stand for

one part of a two part relationship' (p.7). A member, in turn, can be made up of one or more sentences. It is important to see that the predictive relationship is, in Tadros's Predictive Model, always established between sentences, and never intra-sententially. Although she admits that Prediction does 'occur within sentences as conventionally conceived' (p.7), she excludes this from her model. In order to fit her scheme, then, she redefines sentence boundaries. For her there are **four** separators:

- 1) full-stop;
- 2) question mark;
- 3) dash;
- 4) colon,

the last three of which are considered to have the same status as the full-stop. Furthermore, Tadros points out that each member has a 'head', which is the most important element signalling the predicting relationship.

The term Enumerables appears in one of Tadros's Predictive categories, namely that of Enumeration. This category is defined by her as follows:

Enumeration is a category of prediction in which the head of the V member carries a signal that commits the writer to enumerate and this means that the head of necessity predicts more than one member. (Tadros:14)

Now, there are three types of Enumeration: each of them originating from a different criterion of V membership. Tadros labels these three criteria '1', '2' and '3' respectively. The

first one is Type A of Enumeration which is based on Criterion 1 for V membership that Tadros defines as follows:

Where a structure has  
 either a) a plural subject followed by a verb which  
 demands a complement followed by a colon  
 e.g. the main advantages to be derived from grading  
 are:

....

or b) a free clause followed by a clause binder (a word  
 which joins a bound clause to a free clause, Sinclair,  
 1972:25)

e.g. This is possible under conditions when:

....

(Tadros, 1985:1)

The second one, Type B that Tadros distinguishes is based on the following criterion:

Where a sentence includes a cataphoric textual place  
 reference item such as 'the following' or 'as follows'  
 in association with a plural noun:

(Tadros, 1985:15)

and she presents the following examples:

This theory has been criticized for the following  
 reasons:.... During this period of eleven years the  
 intervals between booms were as follows: ....

(Tadros, 1985:16)

The third type, the type C of Enumeration originates from the following criterion, in which Tadros explicitly states that Enumerables are essential elements for the prediction of Enumeration.

Where a sentence includes a numeral plus an enumerable,  
 provided the information is presented as new to the  
 context.

(Tadros, 1985:15)



The notion of Enumerables for Tadros is based on the opposition between two kinds of noun: Open-Set Nouns and Enumerables. The first kind are nouns "whose referents exist in the real world outside discourse" (Tadros, 1985:14). Enumerables, on the other hand, are "plural nouns whose referents are in the first instance textual" i.e. 'other stretches of language' (ibid). For Tadros, 'Open-Set nouns', in contrast with Enumerables "do not signal that their referents, though they may do, will actually follow in the text" (ibid). She argues that Enumerables "in a statement like 'X has three advantages /functions/ aspects' necessitates the existence of something that can be reasonably regarded as 'advantages' 'functions' 'aspects' (ibid). "By contrast, she adds, "a statement like 'X has three 'sons' 'books' 'chairs' does not have the same predictive effect. She exemplifies her point. The sentence

In this type of company there must be at least seven shareholders, but no maximum number is fixed. (p.88)  
(Tadros, 1985:18)

does not set up any prediction that the 'shareholders' will be enumerated because this word is an Open-Set noun. While in this other sentence

This kind of company has three important features: the number of shareholders may be as few as two, but the maximum must not exceed fifty ....; a shareholder cannot transfer his shares without the consent of the company nor can any invitation be made to the general public to subscribe for shares.

(Tadros, 1985:18)

the writer does set up a prediction of Enumeration as the noun modified by the numeral is an Enumerable.

Tadros provides a list of the Enumerables found in her data.

adjuncts	classes	effects	motives	stages
advantages	concepts	elements	objections	suggestions
angles	conditions	examples	periods	things
attempts	consequences	factors	points	trends
branches	criticisms	features	policies	varieties
causes	difficulties	forms	propositions	views
circumstances	disadvantages	influences	qualities	
	drawbacks	ways	reasons	
		meanings	sources	

(Tadros, 1985:17)

Furthermore, she explains that the 'numerals' that modify the Enumerables can be of two kinds: exact, such as 'one' 'two' 'three', or inexact, such as 'many' 'various'. She points out that there is a subtle difference between the use of 'exact' and 'inexact' numerals. T says about this:

An exact numeral reflects the writer's state of knowledge - it is precise - and commits him to producing the number predicted, whereas an inexact numeral reduces the writer's responsibility, although he is still committed to Enumeration. Any attempt to withdraw from the commitment has to be signalled to the reader, and this unintentionality reinforces commitment. A writer who says 'Bartes has a number of serious drawbacks' and then adds 'for example', has indicated that he is negotiating withdrawal from the commitment to enumerate and instead is resorting to exemplification. By contrast, a writer who declares his

precise state of knowledge will not withdraw from his responsibility.

(Tadros, 1985:19)

Finally, when Tadros refers to the D members of Enumerables, i.e. the predicted items, she does not distinguish any special kinds for each of the three types of Enumeration that she sets up. Instead, she describes them in general. She suggests that 'the function of the D members of enumeration is to fulfill the predictions set up by the V members (p.20). And then she adds that the D members can be easily identified by:

- a) Special features of lay-out such as: italics, numbering, punctuation
- b) Occurrence of such sequencing signals in the head of the D member as:
  - Firstly, secondly, etc.
  - Lastly, finally
  - One, next, then also, another, too, further, etc.
- c) Grammatical parallelism, as for instance use of the same type of verb. In the following example in the two D members the verb is in the present tense
  - V There are two advantages to be derived from this method of expansion.
  - Di It enables 'new blood' to be introduced into the business
  - Dii and it makes it possible an increase in capital.
- d) By devices of cohesion that relate the heads of the D members to the head of the V member, and more particularly lexical repetition (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). For example, the repetition of the plural noun 'economies' in the following
  - V The following are some of the principal intended economies of scale:
  - Di Economies in the use of factors of production...
  - Dii Economies in administration ...
  - Diii Marketing economies ...
  - Div Other economies of large scale... (109)

(Tadros, 1985:20-1)

## 1.2. Enumerables Redefined

It is my purpose now to redefine and enlarge the concept of Enumerables. For this, it is important to distinguish two different interrelated aspects departing from Tadros's category of Enumeration: The notion of Enumerability and the existence of certain plural nouns that are potential Enumerables.

First, Enumerability is the capacity of special types of plural nouns to predict enumeration. In order to predict enumerations, these plural nouns have to appear in determined discursive Environments (what Tadros calls 'criteria of V membership of Enumeration'). I have found three different Environments which correspond to Tadros's criteria of V membership. Yet, I have changed the order on the basis of frequency of occurrence.

The first Environment (EI) would correspond to Criterion 3 of V membership for Tadros and this has by far the highest occurrence.

A sentence that includes a Numeral plus a Plural Noun in which the information is presented as new to the context.

The following are three examples from my own data:

- (1) V I suspect that there are two factors involved in English subject assignment, but the details have yet to be fitted into place.
- Di The first factor is the ranking of the roles in terms of the priorities for subject assignment .

Dii The second factor breaks the tie, it is related to the thematic properties by which a relationship during the roles is staged for the hearer's benefit.

(Grimes, 1975:205)

(2) V Austin reconsiders the senses in which 'to say something may be to do something' and concludes that 'in issuing an utterance a speaker can perform three acts simultaneously'

Di a locutionary act which is the act of saying something in the full sense of 'say';

Dii an illocutionary act which is an act performed in saying something, the act identified by the explicit performative;

Diii a perlocutionary act, the act performed by the result of saying'

(Coulthard, 1977:17)

(3) V As of today, the whole euthanasia debate can be summed up as a conflict between two powerful and conflicting emotions:

Di on the one hand the fear that if voluntary euthanasia is legalized, it will in time slide into compulsory euthanasia and ...

Dii and on the other hand the fear that if euthanasia is not legalized, we may have to face a future of degraded senility, ...

(Kennedy, 1990:29)

The second Environment (EII) corresponds to Criterion 2 of V membership for Tadros and it has a relatively high frequency of occurrence.

A sentence which includes a cataphoric textual place reference item such as 'the following' or 'as follows' in association with a plural noun.

Here I present two examples:

(4) V The following nouns of this class were found in my data

D Members: 'abstraction' 'analysis' 'approach' 'assessment' (long list of nouns follows)

(Francis, 1987:15)

(5) V He describes three major categories of transaction - market auctions, other market transactions, shop

transactions - although the second and third are distinguished by situation as they share the following five stages

- Di 1. salutation
- Dii 2. enquiry as to the object of sale
- Diii 3. investigation of the object of sale
- Div 4. bargaining
- Dv 5. conclusion

(Coulthard, 1977:5)

The third Environment (EIII) corresponds to Criterion 3(a) of V membership for Tadros and it is the one which has the lowest occurrence in the data I have analyzed.

A sentence which has a plural noun followed by a verb that demands a complement followed or not by a colon.

One example from my data is the following:

- (6) V For these teachers, the most prominent features of communicative methodology were
  - Di an emphasis on oral work,
  - Dii special role play activities (whether scripted or unscripted),
  - Diii the use of group and (especially) pair work,
  - Div and the use of the target language for classroom communication (though there was no consensus on the extent to which this was possible).

(Mitchell, 1989:201)

Second, it is important to revise the notion of Enumerables as originally conceived by Tadros. For her Enumerables are nouns which are opposed to Open-Set nouns, that is, she claims the existence of a group of plural nouns 'whose referents are in the first instance textual', in contrast with the other group of nouns, Open-Set ones whose referents exist in the real world outside discourse. In my opinion Tadros's opposition between Enumerables and Open-Set nouns is not an adequate one because it

can be difficult to say whether some nouns have their referents in the real world or not.

Therefore, I propose a different approach. I suggest, the existence of some special types of plural nouns that can be Enumerables because they are unspecific (Winter, 1989:2). "Unspecific nouns are nouns that require lexical realization in order to be understood" (Winter, 1989:2). This is exactly the case with all the plural nouns presented in the examples above: 'factors', 'acts', 'emotions', 'nouns', 'stages', 'features'. Following Winter (1989), I will also make a distinction between two kinds of unspecific:

a) Open-class unspecifics of subject matter, e.g. 'acts', 'emotions', 'nouns'.

b) Closed-class of semantic and syntactic organization, e.g. 'factors', 'stages', 'features'.

The nouns belonging to class b) would be what for I are Enumerables, but in my own view the nouns belonging to class a) must also be considered as such. (Later on in the analysis of the different types of Enumerables I come back to this problem). I propose, then, the existence of two groups of Enumerables:

a) Technical Nouns: They are unspecific of subject matter. Their unspecificness is not inherent but depends on the whole textual context. Let's take one example from EI (example 3, p. 13). The Enumerable in this case is 'emotions' which is made unspecific by the use of the numeral ('two'), together with the fact that it is a topic word, i.e. a word that carries forward

the development of discourse topic. In other words, 'emotions' becomes a key element in the discursive staging. (The notion of staging is taken from Brown & Yule, 1985:125, 152). (See next chapter)

b) System nouns: They are the unspecifics of semantic and syntactic organization. These words are inherently unspecific. They form a 'Closed class' because they are 'items which specify stereotype or metalanguage organizational meanings' (Winter, 1989:5). It should be noticed that System Nouns are similar to Halliday and Hasan's General Nouns, e.g. 'fact' and 'idea' and Francis' Anaphoric Nouns.

As can be seen I consider Enumerables not only the plural nouns occurring in EI, as Tadros does but also those plural nouns occurring in EII and EIII. So now, I can round off my own definition of Enumerables:

Enumerables are either Technical Nouns or System Nouns that when they occur in either EI, or EII or EIII predict the realization of two or more discourse items.

Besides, I would like to present two special Environments in which Enumerables also occur. The first is the Environment formed by 'one of + Enumerable + (verb)'. Obviously, in this case no enumeration follows, instead the V member is made up of only one discourse item. One is:

- (7) It is my purpose here to explore one of the key issues of technique and theory - namely the mechanisms of psychoanalytic interpretation.  
(Levin, 1974:231)



in which the lexical realization has an appositive function. And the other is:

- (8) One of the problems is that much of the research in the area of Applied Linguistics and particularly in Discourse Analysis has not appeared to provide immediate assistance in needs analysis and ...  
(Dudley-Evans, 1987:129)

in which the lexical realization is functioning as subject complement.

The other special Environment is one in which the following combination occurs: Not + all + Enumerable + Predication\*, in which the lexical realization takes the form of enumeration. The only example in my data is the following:

- (9) Not all colonies share the property of having no named (or multiple authors). Some cookery books are presented as having been written by a single author ... Bibliographies are often named ...  
(Hoey, 1987:13)

Going back to my own approach to Enumerables, as distinct from Tadros's, there is another basic difference I would like to highlight. Her study of Predictive categories works only inter-sententially, while my approach to Enumerables works both intra- and inter-sententially. Therefore, for her, examples like the following ones would not be taken into consideration.

- (10) The A - member can be divided into two information units, one of which is the A - noun itself, presented as the given and ...  
The rest of the A - member must be presented as new in relation to the A - noun.  
(Francis, 1987:31,2)

where the first D member is separated from the V member by a comma, an item which is not included as one of the sentence end markers in Tadros's list.

- (11) To handle this lack of fit between grammar and discourse Sinclair et al suggest *two intermediate areas where distinct choices can be postulated situation and tactics.*

(Coulthard, 1977:170)

In this case there is no punctuation used to divide the members, italics are used instead.

### 1.3. Micro-Analysis of Enumerable Environments

#### 1.3.1. Enumerables and Modification

Enumerables, as has already been demonstrated are special types of plural nouns, either unspecific of subject matter, ie Technical, or unspecific of semantic and syntactic organization, ie. System. The important fact here is that both types of plural nouns are **COMMON NOUNS**, and as such they 'designate classes of things' and therefore 'they are liable to be further modified (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:42). My analysis has shown that in both EI and EII there are specific items which modify them playing a specialized role of 'CATAPHORIC DISCOURSE REFERENCE'. Quirk (1972) suggests about discourse reference' that:

There are a number of signals marking the identity between what is being said and what has been said before. They have been brought together here because

they have in common a 'deictic' reference, that is to say, they point back (ANAPHORIC) or forward (CATAPHORIC) in discourse.

and the examples of CATAPHORIC DISCOURSE REFERENCE items he presents are 'as follows', 'the following' and 'thus'.

My suggestion is that when Enumerables appear in EI, both types of Numerals, Exact and Inexact (see previous section) fulfill this CATAPHORIC DISCOURSE REFERENCE ROLE. In the following example the Exact Numeral 'two' plays this role:

- (12) Traditionally speech has been described in terms of two participants, a speaker who transmits the message and a listener who receives it.

(Coulthard, 1977:43)

and in this other example the Inexact Numeral 'many' also does so.

- (13) Many instances of semantic compatibility, if not synonymy, can also be found: 'he wrote' and WORDS; 'he said' and STATEMENT; 'he suggested' and HYPOTHESIS; 'he began... he went on ... he narrated' and STORY; and more complex relations like the use of WORDLY CHORUS to label 'the claims of Mammon Job creation, economic growth and even higher tech.'

(Francis, 1987:9)

Furthermore, in my data I have identified several words and expressions which play the same Numeral-like role, that is that of CATAPHORIC DISCOURSE REFERENCE ITEMS. One of them is 'certain' as in:

- (14) This colony-like exploitation of 'mainstream' discourses has certain implications for the testing of reading and writing. It certainly suggests that to test reading as if it were a single skill ....

For writing too there seem to be implications ...  
(Hoey, 1987:23-4)

another one is 'further', eg:

- (15) There are some further remarks to be made about both types of X-members specified above. First, many of the nouns used as reporting structures ...  
Secondly, in identifying type b) above I have followed Tadros ...  
A final point concerns the reason for which ...  
(Francis, 1987:74-5)

'different' also plays the same role (cf. differ/different in pp119-20)

- (16) In putting together the articles I have tried to represent the different approaches to be found in this branch of L2 acquisition research.  
One approach that has a long history is the application of .....  
The second approach involves applying the findings of ...  
... The third approach is based on the study of ...  
... The fourth approach ...  
The fifth approach involves looking inside the learner ...  
(Ellis, 1989:165-6)

Interestingly, in the group of adjectives that Halliday and Hasan (1976:137) claim to have a 'deictic' function within the nominal group 'certain', 'different' and 'other' are included.

There is, furthermore, a group of expressions 'a number of', 'a series of', 'a range of' and 'a variety of' that also play this numeral-like role. The following is an example of 'a number of':

- (17) It is dependent on a number of key assumptions: that a common set of categories can be applied to produce a valid picture of a series of unique

events (lessons and incidents within them); that an observer can 'read' the intentions of the teacher regarding the kind of language experience provided for his/her pupils, from inspection of his/her own behaviour; and perhaps most controversially from a learning perspective, that pupils in classrooms normally interpret ongoing activity in the way that the teacher intends, and are usually focussing on those aspects of language which are sanctioned in the "official" lesson plan.

(Mitchell, 1989:199)

in the example below the numeral-like expression is 'a series of':

- (18) There is a series of words 'depressing', 'disgusting', 'degenerate', 'decline', 'decrepit', in which the first two phonemes are identical, displaying reverse rhyme.

(Coulthard, 1977:88)

in which 'a series of' is a synonym of 'a group'. In other cases this expression can have a semantic Temporal component as in:

- (19) Over the last six months or so, however, the hostility has risen considerably, with a series of attacks on the "ayatollah" of French music ...  
 "What's Boulez playing at? asked L'Express, ... Boulez, so their argument goes wants "power total power without any opposition" (Le Monde) ...  
 But Boulez crucial QUERELLE has been with ...

(The Observer, 220490:37)

It is important to point out that each of these Numeral-like expressions can be synonyms of 'a set of'. The last Numeral-like expression found in my data is 'a variety of' as in:

- (20) Discourse analysts by contrast have rarely resorted to introspected data for other than passing illustrative purposes and have also been careful to draw their data from a variety of sources, spoken and written.

(Hoey, 1987:1)

The striking point here is that 'a variety of' can be paraphrased as 'different kinds of' or 'different types of'. This leads me to include in this list of Numeral-like items a series of nouns which have a use akin to that of 'a variety of'. What I mean to say is that there a series of nouns which are Enumerables themselves but have to be textually realized together with other Enumerables or other nouns to predict enumeration. These plural nouns 'kinds', 'types', 'sorts', 'sets', 'groups', 'categories' and 'classes' constitute the phenomenon which I have labelled 'lexicalization of Enumerability'. This means that they make explicit the potential enumeration which is inherent in common nouns as they 'designate classes of things' (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:42). One example is the following:

- (21) In Mary K De Shazer's analysis of the concept of the muse in Western literature, she identifies three types of muses: the sexual, the spiritual and the natural, each linking the poet with a primary force.

(Farwell, 1988:106)

These plural nouns which I have labelled Categorical, and which are essential components of the 'lexicalization of Enumerability' have thus a purely functional value: they are **CLASSIFICATORY INDICATORS**. Because of that they are highly 'unspecific', ie have a low semantic load. (In chapter II, I discuss some other aspects of these nouns)

After having devoted a great deal of time (and space) to the Cataphoric Discourse Reference items, (which are a way of modification), which appear in EI, I turn to the modifiers that fulfill this Cataphoric Discourse Reference role in EII. The first one is the combination 'the + following' that always appear as pre-modification as in:

(22) Rule 1:

An interrogative is to be interpreted as a command if it fulfills all the following conditions:

- i) it contains one of the modals CAN, COULD, WILL, WOULD, (and sometimes GOING TO).
- ii) if the subject of the clause is also the addressee.
- iii) the predicate describes an action which is physically possible at the time of the utterance.

(Coulthard, 1977:10)

The other is the expression 'as follows' as in:

(23) Thus the moves identified in Dissertation 3 are as follows

- Move 1: Introducing the Field
- Move 2: Introducing the General Topic
- etc...

(Dudley-Evans, 1987:135)

It should be noticed that in some cases 'the following' and 'as follows' can occur together with Numerals as in:

(24) I am suggesting four categories as follows

- 1. Signals of discourse patterns ...
- 2. Connective Units involving a Vocabulary 3 item ...
- 3. Units and items that relate to organization of a text as a consistent ...
- 4. Conjunction ...

(Harris, 1987:131)





in which the combination of the Enumerable 'signals' plus the copula verb 'are' makes the realization of the enumeration compulsory. Therefore, it can be said that in EIII the cataphoric effect is a LEXICO - (given by the Enumerable) - SYNTACTIC (given by the need of the complement) phenomenon.

### 1.3.2. Other Types of Modifiers

Apart from Cataphoric Discourse Reference modification, Enumerables are liable to be further modified. Enumerables appearing in Environment I (EI) can be pre- and post-modified. As regards Pre-modification I have identified three types of adjectives: Highlighters, Limiters/Definers, and Sequential Markers.

Firstly, Highlighters are adjectives that as their name indicates, emphasize the importance of the Enumerable they modify. The adjectives included in this group are 'major', 'main', 'important', 'key' and superlatives such as 'most prominent'. One example is the following:

- (27) He describes three major categories of transaction  
 - market auctions, other market transactions; shop  
 transactions ...

(Coulthard, 1977:5)

Secondly, Limiters/Definers are adjectives or groups of adjectives that contribute to semantically complete the 'unspecific' meaning of Enumerables. The following is an

example:

- (28) The western tradition offers two important sexual and distinctly heterosexual images of creativity - lover and androgyn - ...  
(Farwell, 1988:104)

in which the Enumerable 'images' acquires a more precise semantic value being modified by the adjectival expression 'sexual and distinctly heterosexual'.

Finally, Sequential Markers are adjectives usually modifying Enumerables like 'points', 'remarks' and 'conclusions', that as their name indicates signal a temporal sequence. Examples are 'initial' and 'final' as in:

- (29) With respect to this cohesive role, two initial points must be made. The first is that cohesion is not achieved by the A-noun alone but...  
The second point is that the classes of A-noun, taken together, bear some resemblance to the class of...  
(Francis, 1987:27)

Post-modification, on the other hand includes a great variety of syntactic structures which have the same role as pre-modification of Limiters/Definers. Very common structures having this function are abridged past participle clauses as in:

- (30) At two of the festivals two speech events concerned with asking the creator for successful crops occur. The Tobacco Invocation and the Skin Dance, ...  
(Coulthard, 1977:42)

A similar syntactic structure is the abridged infinitive clause as in:

- (31) In the intervening period there are only two isolated attempts to study supra-sentential structure, one based on a written text, by Harris; and the other based on a collection of spoken text by Mitchell.

(Coulthard, 1977:5)

Sometimes wh-defining or non-defining clauses may also have the same role.

- (32) Geertz reports that Javanese has three major styles which, unlike those suggested by Joos for English, are recognized and named by speakers of the language - 'krama', 'madya' and 'ngok', high, mid and low.

(Coulthard, 1977:39)

The commonest form of post-modification is by means of prepositional phrases often introduced by 'of', although other prepositions such as 'in' can occur. One example with an 'of' prepositional phrase is:

- (33) In any spoken text there are at least four major levels of organization - phonology, grammar, discourse and non-linguistic.

(Coulthard, 1977:6)

and one with a prepositional phrase introduced by 'in' is the following:

- (34) In the analysis of the discussion sections of the Plant Biology Dissertations it was found that in general terms there were three parts in the discussion

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Evaluation of Results
- 3 Conclusions and Future Work

(Dudley-Evans, 1987:141)

The Enumerables in EII have a very low occurrence of other types of modification apart from the Cataphoric Discourse Reference Items. Sometimes they are pre-modified by **highlighters** as in the the following case, in which the Highlighter is 'key':

- (35) The following **key** questions are raised in the literature dealing with this particular teaching problem
- (a) Which verb form should...?
  - (b) What are the situational contexts in which ...?
- (Vogel & Bahms, 1989:185)

And sometimes they may be post-modified by means of i) a **wh-clause** as in:

- (36) The meaning components mentioned so far cannot, however, account for the following three other functions **which do not seem to be connected to its semantic basis**: future time reference (I'm coming tomorrow); emphasis on habitual events (He's always cheating); free variation with verbs referring to states (You're looking good today).
- (Vogel & Bahms, 1989:186-7)

or ii) by a **prepositional phrase** as in:

- (37) On the basis of our findings from SLA research we suggest the following improvements **for teaching the progressive to the beginner of English**
- (a) There should be more pragmatic adequacy - ...
  - (b) In the acquisition of verbal morphology ...
  - (c) If the progressive was restricted to atelic verbs ...
  - (d) The progressive should not be introduced together with ...
- (Vogel & Bahms, 1989:192)

or also iii) by a **limiter/definer** as in:

- (26) ... and the lexical signals are:
- i) use of...
  - ii) use of...

- iii) use of...
  - iv) use of...
  - v) use of ...
- (Dudley-Evans, 1987:140)

Instances of post-modification although rare may also occur.

### 1.3.3. Focussing on Each Environment

#### 1.3.3.1. Focussing on Environment I

##### Analysis of V members

In this section I syntactically analyse the V members  $\in$  EI to see which parts of the sentence the 'Enumerable phrase' can realize. Besides, I present a list of the verbs that appear together with them.

A very common syntactic pattern is the one realized by the existential 'there' + 'to be', ie existential sentences or clauses as in:

- "In any spoken text there are at least four major levels of organization ...."
- "Lyons suggests that there are at least three degrees of idealization between..."
- "There are two isolated attempts to study ...."
- "There are several techniques open to the speaker who wishes ...."

- "Sinclair et al suggest there are four questions one needs  
...."

As can be seen, the verb that is sometimes used in association with this pattern is 'to suggest'. The function of those patterns which are introduced by this verb is reporting.

In most cases the 'numeral + Enumerable' pair fulfills the function of Direct Object within the sentence or clause where it occurs. Depending on the verb, the Enumerable can be either the head of the noun phrase acting as DO, for example:

- "His system has several points in its favour: ...."
- or it can be the subject of the noun clause acting as DO as in
- "He suggests that five rules govern the making of a promise  
...."

The verbs that appear in my data are the following ones:

i) Object to the verbs 'to have'/'to offer', eg

- "Barnes has two educational tenets ...."
- "The key system offers three choices ...."

ii) Object to illocutionary/cognitive verbs, eg

- To describe: "He describes three major categories of transaction ...."
- To report: "Frake reports four speech events ...."
- To suggest: "Austin suggests four tests for deciding ...."
- To distinguish: "...., English distinguished two second persons singular pronouns ...."  
".... discusses and distinguishes two major types of rules ...."
- To give an example: "She gives three kinds of example ...."

- To formulate: "Using the answers to these questions they formulate three rules to predict areas where ..."
- To group into: Austin himself grouped them into five major classes ..."

### iii) Object to other verbs

- To perform: "... issuing an utterance a speaker can perform three acts simultaneously."
- To exercise: "... that a current speaker can exercise three degrees of control over the next speaker."
- To concentrate on: 'The descriptive systems he proposes concentrates on two aspects of the interaction ..."

Finally, there are some cases in which the 'numeral + Enumerable' pair appears as Adverbial Adjunct within the sentence or clause. Examples are the following:

- "Ervin Tripp observes that the policeman insulted the doctor three times."
- "Johns (ms) presents selected materials from two courses..."
- "It is suggested that the three move eliciting structure is the normal form inside the classroom for two reasons."

There are also instances in which special expressions are used as in:

- "... human communication must be described in terms of at least three levels ..."

where the prepositional phrase 'in terms of' introduces the noun phrase, the whole phrase having the function of AA.

It is important to point out that in all the V members presented above Enumerables appear in Rheme position, ie the place which is generally reserved for the New information (as already mentioned in p.12, within EI plural nouns should provide new information to the text to be Enumerables). At syntactical level, thus, an Enumerable in Rheme position would be the 'unmarked form', ie the expected position for an Enumerable to appear within a sentence. There are some cases, however, when Enumerables occur in Theme position. One pattern of this type that I have identified is 'numeral + Enumerable + copula verb + subject complement' as in 'Two points are of interest.' Another is the pattern: 'numeral + Enumerable + verb in the passive' as in 'Three objections must be made.' Despite their Theme position, the place usually reserved for 'Given information', these Enumerables also provide 'New information'. Therefore, Enumerables in Theme position would be the marked form, and as in many instances of marked form usage, the reason for this choice is emphasis.

#### Analysis of D Members

The analysis of the D members predicted by Enumerables occurring in Environment I requires to look at different aspects: type of realization level, type of separator, type of divider and type of signalling.



It is important to show that the D members predicted by this Environment can be realized at various levels: intra-sentential, inter-sentential and between paragraphs. When the D members are realized at intra-sentential level, that is below Subject + Predicate level, they can be words:

- . (33) In any spoken text there are at least four major levels of organization - phonology, grammar, discourse and non-linguistic.

(Coulthard, 1977:6)

or nominal constructions such as:

- (38) The Kiparskys, for example, list two sets of criteria to test factivity, one set for predicates that ...; another set for predicates with object clauses.

(Francis, 1987:16)

which in both cases have appositive functions.

In instances of D members realized at intra-sentential level, the separators, ie the items that separate the V member from the D members are usually the comma, the dash and the colon. Besides, the dividers, the items that divide the different D members are the comma and the semi-colon.

Inter-sentential level realization refers to the cases where the D members constitute 'Subject + Predicate' structures on their own, regardless of whether they belong to the same orthographically marked sentence of the V member or not. One example in which the D members are at this level is the following:

- (39) The A-noun may combine with a reference item in two ways. First, it may be modified by it ...  
 Second, it may be the complement ...  
 (Francis, 1987:27-8)

There is a special type of lexical realization which I call Split Lexical Realization, in which the D members take place first intra-sententially and then inter-sententially as in:

- (40) ... Searle discusses and distinguishes the two major types of rules, regulative and constitutive. Regulative rules, as the name implies, are concerned with conditions on the occurrence of certain forms of behaviour - ...; constitutive rules define the ...  
 (Coulthard, 1977:23)

When D members are realized at inter-sentential level, any of them may be constructed by more than one sentence. The next example shows an Enumerable predicting a lexical realization made up of two paragraphs, that is, each member constitutes a paragraph.

- (41) Sinclair distinguishes two major aspects of language in use, which he calls the autonomous and the interactive planes of discourses.

The autonomous is concerned with ... [whole paragraph]

The interactive plane concerns the real time ... [whole paragraph]

(Francis, 1987:33-4)

When D members occur either at inter-sentential or inter-paragraph levels, the separators of V from D members are usually the semi-colon and the (full) stop, these items being also the dividers.

The most important feature of D members is that they may be signalled by what Quirk (1972:288) calls 'Enumerative conjuncts' as in the following case:

(42) Such a claim raises questions of two kinds: **first**, is an exhaustive listing of A-nouns possible in the sense in which it is arguably possible to circumscribe, say, the class of illocutionary verbs? And **second**, is there any relation between what I have loosely termed the 'frequently occurring' A-nouns and a concept of 'core' vocabulary (Carter, 1982).

(Francis, 1987:8)

in which the signals of enumeration are 'first' and 'second'.

Here is a list of the Enumerative conjuncts found in my data:

- The first/the second
- Firstly, secondly, thirdly, etc.
- One of which/the second ..... which ...
- One is .../the other ...
- On the one hand/on the other hand
- (a), (b), (c) (alphabetic ordering)
- i, ii, iii or 1, 2, 3, etc. (numeral ordering).

In the cases when the writer resorts to exemplification as the form of enumeration the signals may be 'for example' or 'eg' as in:

(43) The same fragment has a large number of marked contrast terms for example, 'these' and 'those'; 'go to' and 'come from'; 'in' and 'out'; 'you' and 'they'; 'men' and 'ladies'; 'new' and 'old'; 'ever' and 'never'; 'pretending' and 'really'; 'depressing' and 'fun'.

(Coulthard, 1977:88)

Furthermore, there are some cases when the D members do not follow directly the V member, but they establish a special layout pattern, eg.

- (44) Austin suggests four tests for deciding which way utterances in the middle column are being used:
- i) does the saying constitute the performing of an act? ...
  - ii) could the action be performed without uttering the words? ...
  - iii) is the action something that can be done deliberately and voluntarily?
  - iv) can the utterance be literally false? ...
- (Coulthard, 1977:15-6)

In cases such as this, the commonest way of introducing the D members is by means of alphabetical or numerical ordering.

Finally, apart from the introducers already mentioned, ie the 'numerative conjuncts', the D members are 'signalled' by other features. One of them is Printing devices such as italics, underlining, inverted commas. The other is parallelism. There are different types of Parallelism (here, I present just a brief description of this phenomenon as it is dealt with in Chapter III). The first one is Lexical Repetition as in:

- (45) Conjunction - This most obvious form of sentence connection is divided into two types by Halliday and Hasan
- External - i.e. a connection made explicit that is related to real world organization = the thesis
  - Internal - i.e. a connection made explicit that is related to the writer's organization and perceptions = the argument
- (Harris, 1987:151)

where the lexical repetition is not a single word but of a group of words: 'connection made explicit that is related to'.

Besides, the example above is also an instance of syntactic parallelism as the two D members have the same syntactic structure. Furthermore, it is also an instance of 'ellipsis', the third type of Parallelism, as the heads of the D members, that is 'External' and 'Internal' could be paraphrased as "External Conjunction" and "Internal Conjunction", 'conjunction' thus, being the ellided item. The fourth and last one is the one which I following Tadros label 'grammatical', as for example the use of the same verb tense, verb form or modal in the D members as in:

- (46) Swales suggests that there is a structure for these introductions in which a series of moves occur in a predictable order. This is shown below

The four moves

- Move one: Establishing the Field
- Move two: Summarizing Previous Research
- Move three: Preparing for Present Research by ...
- Move four: Introducing Present Research by ...

(Dudley-Evans, 1987:130)

where the grammatical parallelism is established by the use of the 'gerund': 'establishing', 'summarizing' and so on.

#### 1.3.3.2. Focussing on Environment II

##### Analysis of V members

I proceed to make a syntactic analysis of the V members occurring in EII. The commonest syntactic function V members of this type can fulfill is that of Subject as in:

- The following moves occurred ...
- The following remarks are based ...
- Thus the moves identified in Dissertation 3 are as follows
- The lengths are as below ...
- The following questions are raised ...
- Signals include modals such as ...

Sometimes they function as Direct Object as in:

- Some turns are more closely related than others and he isolates a class of sequences of turns called adjacency pairs which have the following features ...
- An interrogative is to be interpreted as a command if it fulfills the following conditions: ...

They can also be Objects to illocutionary/cognitive verbs, for example:

- For instance, he cites the following two sentences as 'Content Signposts':
- Consider the following two sections:

Futhermore, it is common to find the V members EII playing the syntactic role of Adverbial Adjuncts as in:

- In each of the following utterances, Searle suggests, the speaker expresses the proposition that John will leave the room, ...
- In the examples which follow the symbol is placed at the beginning of the tone group and the tonic syllable is italicised ...
- When we consider the italicised items in the following sentences ...

### Analysis of D members

The D members occurring in Environment II (EII) can be divided into two groups: a) those which follow directly the V members and b) those which are lexically realized below the V member, establishing a lay-out pattern.

a) Those which follow directly the V member:

i) Without punctuation marks: following "such as" or "like"

(47) Signals are linking words such as 'thus',  
'therefore' and 'clearly' and a non-modal verb.  
(Harris, 1987:157)

ii) Separated by colon from the V member

(48)... which have the following features: they are two utterances long; the utterances are produced successively by different speakers; the utterances are ordered - the first must belong to the class of *first pair parts*, the second to the class of *second pair parts*; the utterances are related; not any second pair can follow any first pair part, but only an appropriate one; ...  
(Coulthard, 1977:70)

b) Those which are lexically realized below, establishing a lay-out pattern:

i) Introduced by numerical ordering

(49) The following moves occurred in those sections of the discussion concerned with evaluation of results

- 1 INFORMATION MOVE ...
- 2 STATEMENT OF RESULT (SOR) ...
- 3 (UN)EXPECTED OUTCOME ...

#### 4 REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS RESEARCH (RPR) (COMPARISON) ...

(Dudley-Evans, 1987:143)

##### ii) Introduced by alphabetic ordering

(50) The following key questions are raised in the literature dealing with this particular teaching problem

- (a) Which verb form should be introduced first - the progressive form of the simple verb form (of the present tense)?
- (b) What are the situational contexts in which sentence in the progressive should be introduced first?

(Vogel & Bahms, 1989:185)

##### iii) By sequential lay-out placement (one member below the other)

(51) In each of the following utterances, Searle suggests ...

Will John leave the room?

John will leave the room?

John leave the room?

If John will leave the room,

I will also leave.

(Coulthard, 1977:22)

##### iv) Organized by non-linear text (such as diagrams)

(52) The introductions varied considerably in length, from 2 to 16 pages and from approximately 320 to 4640 words. The lengths are as below

Text	Pages	Words
Dissertation 1	2	320
Dissertation 2	2	480
etc.		

(Dudley-Evans, 1987:135)

Like the D members that are predicted by V members  $\xi$  EI, the D members predicted by V members  $\xi$  EII are also signalled by



printing devices and parallelism.

### 1.3.3.3. Focussing on Environment III

#### Analysis of V members

The V members  $\in$  EIII are generally formed by an Enumerable as Subject + a verb that demands a complement as in the following examples:

- The main purposes envisaged for communicative FL use in the classroom were: ...
- Examples of this are ...
- Two other major options at third place are to produce ...

Although, they can also be objects to a verb such as 'consider' as in the following case:

- We shall consider as psychotherapy only those types of influence characterized by ...

#### Analysis of D members

Like the D members  $\in$  EII, the D members predicted by V members  $\in$  EIII are of two types:

A Those which follow directly the V members. e.g.

- (53) We have noted that ACT and DICTIONARY characterize the discourse type. We could add 'PRONUNCIATION KEY' and 'LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS'. In each case the

title characterizes the form of the discourse, not the content only. Other examples are 'ENCYCLOPEDIA BRITANNICA', 'STANLEY GIBBONS SIMPLIFIED CATALOGUE', 'THOMSON LOCAL DIRECTORY' and 'JOURNAL OF LINGUISTICS'.

(Hoey, 1987:11)

B) Those which are lexically realized below establishing a layout patterns, e.g.

- (54) We shall consider as psychotherapy only those types of influence characterized by:
1. a trained socially sanctioned healer, whose healing powers are accepted by the sufferer and his social group or an important segment of it
  2. a sufferer who seeks relief from the healer
  3. a circumscribed more or less structured series of contacts between the healer and the sufferer, ...

(Frank, 1974:2-3)

These two types of D members can also be signalled by printing devices or parallelism. (See Chapter III)

This chapter has presented an introduction to Enumerables, the plural nouns that predict Enumerations. In it, the issue of 'Unspecificness', as essential factor for plural nouns to be predictive has been only superficially dealt with. The following chapter investigates this issue in depth and at the same time it presents a classification of Enumerables.

## CHAPTER II

### THE SEMANTICO-PRAGMATIC VALUE OF ENUMERABLES

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the dichotomy already presented in the previous chapter between System Enumerables and Technical Enumerables. Firstly, I go deeper into these two concepts trying to expand Winter's ideas about Unspecific Discourse Items. Secondly, I present a taxonomy of System Enumerables based on semantic and pragmatic criteria. Thirdly, I look at Technical Enumerables, describing the types I found in the kind of data I analysed: Linguistic Discourse. Finally, I offer a complete diagram of the different classes of Enumerables, both System and Technical.

## 2.1. System vs Technical

The difference between Technical and System Nouns, as suggested in Chapter I, is based on Winter's notion of two kinds of Unspecifics, Unspecific of Subject Matter (the former), and Unspecific of Semantic and Syntactic Organization (the latter). In the lecture (1989) where Winter states his ideas about the relation between Unspecific/Specific, he explores and develops the notion of Unspecifics of Semantic and Syntactic organization, while the notion of Unspecifics of Subject Matter is only roughly sketched.

According to Winter, there are certain discourse items which are not 'specified' as they lack what he calls 'lexical uniqueness'. As such they are Unspecific. These items in order to be understood have to be textually realized, and when this happens they become Specific as they have acquired 'lexical uniqueness'. As an example of this Unspecific/ Specific relation, he proposes the analysis of a text where the noun 'problem' occurs. This noun according to Winter is **inherently** unspecific, and because of that it belongs to the class of Unspecific of Semantic and Syntactic Organization. Consider his sentence: "Lord Robert had a **problem** that disturbed all his friends" when the text continues

..., he could never resist pocketing any small precious object he encountered on his visits to their homes ...  
(Winter, 1989:3)

the second clause provides the 'specifics' so 'problem' is no longer unspecific, it has acquired lexical uniqueness.

Winter suggests that, 'problem' is inherently unspecific because it is a noun that belongs to the metalanguage, ie a noun which is used to refer to language. Other nouns that would also belong to the metalanguage are 'advantage', 'arrangement', 'argument', 'comment', 'conclusion'. All these items for him 'specify stereotype or metalanguage organizational meanings'. As I said before, 'stereotypes' are inherently 'unspecific' and they form a closed set. (In fact, one of Winter's aims is to identify the metalanguage items in a systematic way).

On the other hand, the open-set Unspecifics are items of 'Subject Matter'. This author does not explain what 'subject matter' means and instead he resorts only to exemplifying them. He suggests as possible candidates the following words and expressions 'disturbance', 'spare parts', 'money', 'child abuse', 'detection of child abuse'.

Enumerables, as already suggested, can be either, 'unspecific of subject matter', what I label Technical, or 'unspecific of semantic and syntactic organization' what I label System. In my own terms the inherent unspecificness of the latter is due to the fact that these plural nouns are nominalisations of discourse potentialities. Consider the following text:

- (55) The description of 'conversation mechanisms' offered by Sacks Schegloff and Jefferson provide detailed evidence of the high degree of structuring of everyday conversation.

There are, however major difficulties facing anyone who attempts ... The reader must generalize ...

A second problem is that ...

A related problem is that ...

A fourth problem is that ...

The final problem ...

(Coulthard, 1977:912-2)

where the nominal phrase 'major difficulties' contains the system Enumerable 'difficulties'. 'Difficulties' is a metalanguage noun as it owes its existential status to the fact that it is textually realized as such. In this case 'difficulties' is a synonym of 'problems'. Therefore, it can be said that this Enumerable is the nominalisation of a discourse potentiality, namely that of textually realizing problems. So if I say

I lost my wallet.

within a context where this is a worrying feature, there is no need to nominalise it as a problem as in the following case:

I have a problem: I lost my wallet.

or something of the like, although I can do it (and in most cases I do do it). It seems to be the case, then, that System Enumerables are nominalisations of discourse features, properties or relations.

The big difference that exists between System and Technical Enumerables, then, would be that while the former are metalanguage items ie, nominalizations of discourse potentialities, the latter are not. Technical Nouns are, however, still Unspecific, or better, they become unspecific in certain contexts, because they are not inherently Unspecific.

The missing step in this part of my argument is the presentation of the textual factors that turn a plural noun which is not a stereotype into an 'unspecific'. In order to attempt to do this, I will discuss the notion of 'staging' as described by Brown and Yule (1983: Chapter 4).

### Enumerables & Staging

To begin with, following Brown and Yule, I can roughly define STAGING as how discourse develops topically. Topic here is what is being talked about. Two factors are deemed fundamental in topic development: LINEARITY and PROMINENCE, which are two interrelated aspects. Linearity refers to the fact that in discourse what 'speakers put first will influence what follows' (Brown and Yule, 1983:133). So within a sentence what comes first, the 'theme' will determine what comes next 'the rheme'. Inter-sententially, a previous sentence will influence a following sentence and so on. Therefore, what comes first is generally considered more prominent. This is the Prominence factor, ie, in discourse some elements are more prominent than others, and these prominent elements are in charge of the development of the topic/staging.

Brown and Yule (p.140) identify some prominent discourse items which they label staging devices, such as topic sentence within a paragraph, and titles, headings and subheadings within a section. These items are prominent for two reasons. The first one is that 'they provide starting points for the following discourse items' (sentences or paragraphs) and the second one is

that 'they also contribute to dividing the text into smaller chunks' (ibid.). These authors emphasise the fact that 'This chunking effect is one of the most basic of those achieved by thematization in discourse' (ibid.).

I would like to suggest then, that from a staging perspective, two kinds of items can be differentiated, the nominalisations of discourse potentialities, such as 'analysis', 'correlation', 'series' forming a closed set; and the other nouns such as 'movements', 'speaker' and 'conversations' forming an open set. The former are 'staging devices per se' as they have similar characteristics to those of the staging devices proposed by Brown and Yule, namely providing points of departure for the following text and dividing the following text into chunks (see the previous example in which the Enumerable "difficulties" has these two roles). Therefore, closed set items are always prominent. On the other hand, open-set items are not always prominent, though they can be. It is my suggestion then, that open-set items can become prominent when they appear in special discourse environments. In such cases, they become Unspecific and acquire the same staging potentialities as closed set items.

One clear example of how "open-set items" become staging devices, and therefore Unspecific of Subject Matter is the case of plural nouns that appear at the beginning of a paragraph or section. One example from Winter (1989:11) is the following:

Parents constantly complained of the noise their children made whilst engaged in amorous exercises; they



much preferred to be able to turn a deaf ear to what was obviously going on. Take Manyalibo, for instance, whose daughter was courted by all and sundry, but it was not this that upset her father so much as the disturbance it caused in the hut. ...

in which the plural noun 'parents' appears in the first sentence, which is a general statement, and then it is lexically realized through exemplification: 'Take Manyalibo, for instance, ...'

Consider the following text:

(56) De Long (1974) reports a detailed analysis of a series of conversations between four-year-old pre-school children, which shows a marked correlation between certain body movements and change of speaker. The transcription noted eight basic movements, including 'up', 'down', 'left', 'right', 'forward', and 'backward' for eight parts of the body, the head, the trunk and the left and right arms, hands and fingers. Analysis showed that two movements co-occurred, either simultaneously or in rapid succession to signal a termination. The first was a leftward movement of the head, the second a downward movement by the head, arms or hands individually or in any combination.

(Coulthard, 1977:59)

where the mingling of Closed and Open-set items can be sketched in the following way:

PROMINENCE		
CLOSED SET ITEMS		OPEN SET ITEMS
Analysis		which shows ...
a series of		conversations between ...
correlation		
certain	body movements	
		change of speaker
eight	basic movements	'up', 'down', etc.
Analysis	two movements ...	
The first		a downward movement ...
The second		a leftward movement ...

The interesting point is to see how 'body movements', an open-set item becomes Unspecific.

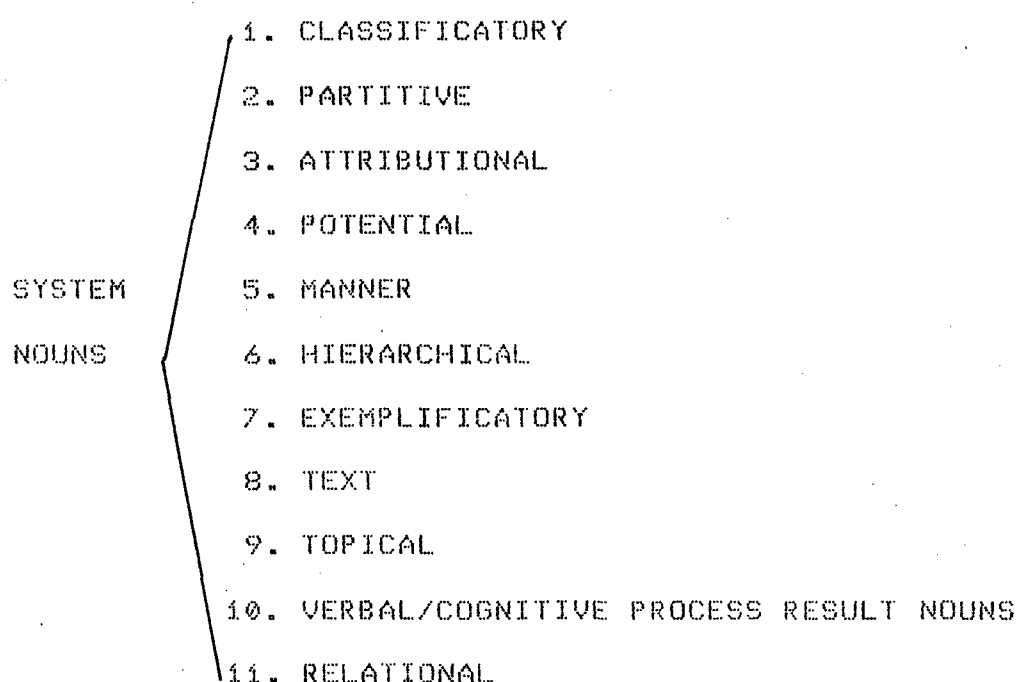
In the diagram, an area of Prominence can be seen, which is fulfilled by closed-set items: 'analysis', 'a series of', 'correlation'. I suggest that 'body movements', although it is an open-set item, enters at a certain moment the Prominence sector. First, because it is modified by the cataphoric discourse reference item 'certain'. Here, no prediction takes place as there is no immediate textual realization. Then, 'movements' is modified by the cataphoric textual reference 'eight' (a numeral) and immediately the enumeration predicted takes place, ie 'up', 'down', etc. Finally, 'movements' is

modified by another numeral 'two' which predicts two lexical realizations. In this way, the open-set item 'movements' has become prominent, sharing the same potentialities of staging devices per se: providing starting points for the following text, and dividing the following text into chunks. Being 'staging devices' open-set items thus become 'Unspecific'. This is exactly the point I wanted to arrive at in order to show how some plural nouns which are open-set items become Technical Enumerables (one type of Unspecific of Subject Matter) due to the fact that they appear in the special Environments I showed to be those of Enumerables.

## 2.2. System Nouns

It has already been suggested that System Nouns are 'Unspecifics of Semantic and Syntactic organization' as they make explicit Discourse Potentialities I have given them the label of System because these nouns, although widely used in many domains of science, are also used in the English language system domain as a whole. The classification of System Nouns I propose below is based on semantic/pragmatic criteria. The boundaries between these categories, however present, some problems. This means that the classification is somewhat tentative and that, in some cases, one noun which is said to belong to one group can discursively behave in such a way that it should be placed in another category. Pragmatic categories are prone to have these

inconveniences since the value of words and expressions is never absolute but context bound. The categories of System Nouns have identified are shown in the diagram below:



### 2.2.1. Classificatory Nouns

Classificatory Nouns, as suggested in 1.3.1, are plural Nouns that make explicit the Potential Enumeration which is inherent in common nouns as they 'designate classes of things' (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:42). They have, thus a purely functional value they are Classificatory indicators. They always appear in nouns phrases of the following type:

CDRI(+) + Noun + of + Noun (or Noun Phrase)

'three' 'kinds' of 'muse'

(+) Cataphoric Discourse Reference Item (see 1.3.1)

although in some cases, they may occur in special constructions such as:

- (57) Previous attempts to formulate a description of children's writings can be divided into two broad categories.

(Harris, 1986:147-8)

Within this group, the following plural nouns can be found:

classes	kinds	groups
categories	sorts	sets
	types	

In my data I have discovered that they combine with other types of Nouns and other types of Enumerables. For instance, the pattern Enumerable + GENERAL NOUN (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:274) is used in the following example:

- (58) I have been sufficiently unsubtle in my spelling out of the contrast between the two types of creature for the analogy I wish to make to be already transparent. Mainstream' discourses are like people...

(Hoey, 1986:4)

In some other cases a Classificatory Noun may combine with TECHNICAL NOUNS as in the following example where 'factive predicate' occurs.

- (59) Leech goes to make a further distinction between two kinds of factive predicate: 'pure factives' and 'conditional factives' (p. 303). Pure factives are ...

Conditional factives are ...

(Francis, 1987:20)

or with ABSTRACT NOUNS, mainly those which are 'gerunds' as in:

(60) It is useful to consider here Latour and Woolgar's (1979) division of the writing of the scientists they investigated into four types:

- (i) writing for a lay audience in Scientific American or the New Scientist
- (ii) writing for a scientist outside the specialist field, ie in non-specialized journals, book reviews
- (iii) writing which specialized in that it makes little sense outside the speciality
- (iv) specialized articles aimed to convey minute pieces of information to a select band of insiders.

(Dudley-Evans, 1986:133)

Finally, they may combine with other System nouns. The Enumerable 'example' is a System Enumerable in the following case:

(61) She gives three kinds of example. First she shows that speakers can, without a pause, produce a completion to a prior speaker's otherwise complete utterance

E.g. ...

Much more impressive are instances of recipients coming in at just the right moment with their own proposed completion of an as yet incompleting sentence:

E.g. ...

A variant of this is when the recipient is able to predict the ending of the sentence and attempts to say the same thing at the same time:

E.g. ...

(Coulthard, 1977:55)

It should be pointed out that in some cases, without the use of an Enumerables in EI, some enumerations are lexically realized as if they had been predicted in this way. See the following case:

- (62) The way these sentences combine into a single coherent discourse is by means of **semantic relations** holding amongst the sentences and amongst the lexical items of which they are composed. The first kind of relation has been termed the 'clause relation' ...  
The second kind of relation has been termed the cohesive tie ...

(Hoey, 1986:15)

This class of Enumerables constitutes in itself a very interesting one. One of the reasons is the fact that two groups can be pragmatically distinguished. The first one, the 'a priori classificatory nouns', including 'kinds', 'sorts' and 'types' would be connected with a layman's view, whereas the second the 'a posteriori classificatory nouns', including sets, groups, classes and categories, would be connected with a more scientific view. Yet, the reason for the choice of nouns belonging to one or the other group seems to be more stylistic than pragmatic. See the following example where 'types' is used, and in which 'categories', according to what I proposed above, would be a more appropriate choice.

- (63) Before he attempts to clarify the nature of the rules which govern the linguistic realisation of illocutionary acts Searle discusses and distinguishes the two major types of rules, *regulative* and *constitutive*.

*Regulative rules ...*

*Constitutive rules ....*

(Coulthard, 1977:23)

To conclude my discussion of this class I would like to add a final remark. The use of certain Classificatory nouns such as

'groups', 'classes', and 'sets' has a high rate of occurrence in explicit and systematic classifications. By this I mean diagrams and classification schemes that together with explanations provide (lists of) example of the items composing the class. Generally these classifications are characterized by special lay-outs: indentation, italics etc. In the following example these characteristics can be clearly seen:

(64)

In brief, I propose five classes of cohesive mechanism:

1 *Replacement* — in its simplest form this is the mechanism by which X in S1 is replaced by a pro-form Y in S2, for example:

S1 Henry V set out for France

S2 When he got *there* he besieged Harfleur.

Additionally, it should be noted that X may be larger than a word and some such examples are cited below.

2 *Deletion* — this is the mechanism by which X in S1 is replaced by Ø in S2 because its presence is so strongly established that repetition or replacement is felt to be redundant. While it is a feature highly typical of interactive speech, it is of significance in terms of children's writing development that there were very few examples in the corpus.

3 *Identity signals* — when X in S1 recurs in S2 its co-referentiality is established by the use of a signal, commonly a specific determiner, for example:

S1 The stimulus of pain generates a nervous impulse.

S2 *The* impulse travels along the sensory neurone in the arm.

The specific determiner *the* confirms the identity of the noun. From an organisational point of view, it should be noted, the repetition of the lexical item is of secondary importance to the presence of the identity signal. This pattern is very common in written text where an item at O or C in S1 recurs as the item at S in S2.

4 *Emphatic Reiteration* — when X in S1 recurs as X in S2 both usually in subject position, for example:

*Bohème* is the most affecting of operas.

*Bohème* has the most prodigious outpouring of melody

*Bohème* presents the greatest contrasts of joy and grief, of intensity and of triviality in love.



This is an unusual and highly marked form of sentence linkage and in fact did not occur in the corpus.

5 *Conjunction* — This most obvious form of sentence connection is divided into two types by Halliday and Hasan.

*External* — i.e. connection made explicit that is related to real-world organisation = the *Thesis*.

*Internal* — i.e. connection made explicit that is related to the writer's organisation and perceptions = the *Argument*.

(Harris, 1986:150-1)

### 2.2.2. Partitive Nouns

The nouns belonging this group refer to the parts of the whole. The paradigm is therefore 'parts'. Included in this group are the following nouns:

components  
parts  
sections  
units

In the following example the Enumerable 'parts' refers to 'problem' another System Enumerable.

- (65) The final sentence of paragraph 2 there establishes a problem in two parts
- i) The amount of variation on which plant breeders can act is becoming reduced
  - ii) There is a recognized need for the conservation of plant generic resources
- (Dudley-Evans, 1986:139)

In the next example 'parts' refers to 'discussion' a noun which in the text is a Technical one.

(34) In the analysis of the discussion sections of the Plant Biology dissertations it was found that in general terms there were three parts in the discussion

- 1) Introduction
- 2) Evaluation of Results
- 3) Conclusions and Future Work

(Dudley-Evans, 1986:141)

And in this one it refers to 'utterance'

(65) Thus, he suggests, an utterance consists of two (not necessarily separate) parts, a proposition and a function indicating device, which marks the illocutionary force'.

(Coulthard, 1977:22)

A similar example is the following one:

(66) According to Quirk et al (1985) the semantic basis of the progressive consists of three components, duration, limited duration and imperfectivity. Which of them is actualised depends on the context and on the lexical aspect of the verb. With atelic verbs, i.e. verbs referring to actions with no perceptible result the progressive expresses duration (I was singing). With telic verbs, i.e. verbs preferring to actions with perceptible result, the progressive means imperfectivity (I was making a cake last night) ... The meaning Limited duration is actualized with verbs referring to states (We are living in the country).

(Vogel & Bahms, 1989:186)

where instead of having the Enumerable 'parts' the Partive 'components' is used.

### 2.2.3. Attributional Nouns

This type of Plural Noun also refers to the parts of the whole, but the parts are not something which are in the whole but attributed to the whole. The paradigm noun would be, thus, *attributes*, I have included in this group the following plural nouns:

advantages	benefits	features
areas	disadvantages	points
aspects	characteristics	properties
attributes		

One Enumerable belonging to this type is found in the following example:

- (67) We have devoted some space to dealing with possible objections to the treatment of certain types of discourse as colonies but we have not yet described the properties of a colony (...). Interestingly there appear to be quite a few. I have identified nine.

If the first and defining property is that the bees enter the hive in no order, the second, and corollary is that the bees normally do not mate ...

A third property of colonies is that the bees need a hive ....

The fourth property is in some ways one of the most basic ...

The fifth property of colonies is an important one, and ...

The sixth property follows on from the fifth ...

The seventh property is a corollary of the sixth ...

For the eighth property of the colony is that ...

..., we consider the last of the nine properties...

(Hoey, 1986:7-18)

Although this is an atypical example of Enumerable within EI, as 'properties' is not directly modified by the numeral 'nine' which appears only afterwards in the text, the function of the Enumerable 'properties' is that of an E EI. Similar to 'properties' is the Enumerable 'features'. Consider the following example:

- (48) Some turns are more closely related than others and he isolates a class of sequences of turns called **adjacency pairs** which have the **following features**: they are two utterance long; the utterances are produced successively by different speakers; the utterances are ordered - the first must belong to the class of *first parts*, the second to the class of *second pair parts*; the utterances are related, not any second pair can follow any first pair, but only an appropriate one; the first pair part often selects next speaker and always selects next action - it thus sets a transition relevance an expectation which the next speaker fulfills, in other words the first part of the pair predicts the occurrence of the second, ...

(Coulthard, 1977:70)

where the Enumerable 'features' can perfectly well be replaced by 'properties' as all the members of the lexical realization are 'properties' of 'adjacency pairs'. Nevertheless, the discourse value of 'features' as well as of other System Enumerables such as 'aspects' or 'areas' seems to be ampler. By this I mean that these Enumerables are highly unspecific as they have a very flexible discourse value. For instance, in the following example 'features' is not a synonym of 'properties' but something, due to the pre-modification 'worrying', more similar to 'problems' (another type of system Enumerable).

(68)

The justification of this type of exercise is superficially convincing but there are several worrying features. Firstly, although Allen and Widdowson argue that the 'expressions' make explicit the 'function a particular sentence is meant to fulfil' and also assert that it is 'crucial for the student... to understand which statements are meant to be illustrations, qualifications, conclusions and so on', there is no attempt to link the two. Students are not introduced to the illocutions 'illustration', 'qualification', 'conclusion', let alone told of the relationship between these illocutions and their appropriate expressions—to the student it is presented as, and some would say never becomes more than, an exercise in text manipulation.

Secondly, one must question the validity of some of the equivalences which the students are being taught. In the exercise above students are led, by items (c) and (f) to assume that 'in short' is equivalent to and replaceable by 'then'—'In short, air takes up space and has weight'. Although one's intuitions about discourse are much less reliable than those about grammar, it is difficult to accept that this could occur as a paragraph-initial illocution.

Thirdly, in later exercises students are required not simply to replace one sentence linker with another, but to insert an item where there was nothing before, in order to 'clarify' the illocutionary force; at times this produces very odd sounding discourse. In the following example, quoted earlier, the students have been instructed to insert 'for example' and 'therefore':

Inorganic acids consist only of hydrogen and an acid radical.  
*For example* hydrochloric acid consists of hydrogen and the chloride radical and the sulphuric acid consists of hydrogen and the sulphate radical. *Therefore* they are inorganic acids.

One of the oddities of this passage is that 'for example' implies that the two acids are accepted as 'inorganic' but then 'therefore' implies that this is a conclusion derived from the two previous statements.

Fourthly, it is instructive to compare the four text books to discover which sentence connectors the authors consider important. Although Winter (1977) offers an exhaustive list and Mountford suggests a classification into ten sub-groups, there is apparently no consensus between the five authors of the *Focus* books. Indeed their choices appear almost random—out of fifty-three words and phrases offered to the students in the four books, only four—'consequently', 'however', 'for example' and 'therefore' occur in every book—and thirty-one are seen as important by only one of the authors.

One final theoretical point—a major question in language teaching is how far one should use authentic text on which to base materials. The *Focus* books do not. Allen and Widdowson (1974a) defend this decision on two grounds: firstly, in this way they are

able to 'avoid syntactic complexity and idiosyncratic features of style which would be likely to confuse students'; and secondly, by composing passages it is possible to 'foreground features of language which have particular communicative value'.

There are of course arguments on both sides and obviously the search for suitable authentic texts can be arduous, but the disadvantages of created text are equally great. Subject specialists have criticised the scientific content; language teachers have observed that many passages, like the one above on 'properties of air' are not acceptable English; but an even more serious indictment is that the passages are surely, in Widdowson's terms, *text*, that is exemplifications of the rule system, rather than *discourse*. In fact the books are, in some respects, a more subtle version of the earlier, ridiculed mistake:

Where is the typewriter?  
The typewriter is in the cupboard.

(Coulthard, 1977:152-3)

As I said before, 'aspects' has a similar flexible behaviour. See the next example:

- (69) The descriptive system he proposes concentrates on the two aspects of the interaction (a) pupils' participation where he considers the amount and type of pupil participation and the way the teacher handles the turn-taking system and guides the development of the topic. (b) teacher's questioning where he divides all the teachers' question into four categories: factual, reasoning (open and closed), other questions (not requiring reasoning), social.

(Coulthard, 1977:93)

where 'aspects' can be paraphrased by 'features'. Let's consider another example in which this Enumerable also appears:

- (41) Sinclair (1981) distinguishes two major aspects of language in use, which he calls the autonomous and interactive planes of discourse.

The autonomous plane is concerned with ...

The interactive plane concerns the real time ...

(Francis, 1987:23-4)

where 'aspects' has an even more 'Unspecific' meaning. Similar to this use of 'aspects', is the role played by the Enumerable 'areas' as in:

- (11) To handle this lack of fit between grammar and discourse Sinclair et al suggest **two intermediate areas** where distinctive choices can be postulated 'situation' and 'factics'. Situation refers to all relevant factors in the environment, social conventions and the shared experience of the participants; tactics handles the syntagmatic patterns of discourse, the way in which items proceed, follow and are related to each other.

(Coulthard, 1977:170)

I have labelled all these highly Unspecific items 'Wild Nouns'. (I have drawn the label 'wild' from Computing, where 'wild items' are items that may fulfill many different functions. Probably, the origin comes from card-games, in which 'wild-cards' are used, the '2' in canastra for example) The flexible discourse value of the Enumerable 'points', which is another 'wild noun' is seen in the following example:

- (70) His system has several points in its favour: firstly, the analysis is in terms of linguistic not temporal units. Secondly, he has intuitively more acceptable ideas about initiating and responding behaviour seeing it as structurally not topically reciprocal. Thirdly, he introduces an extra-category, reacting, to cope with teacher utterances which are related to, but not called for pupil utterances; fourthly, his categorization of utterances is thus in terms of discourse function rather than pedagogical function.

(Coulthard, 1977:97)

where 'points' is post-modified by the propositional phrase 'in its favour', and thus it turns into something similar to

'advantages', another attributional noun. In the following example 'advantages' occurs.

- (71) The major advantages of describing new data with a rank scale are two-fold: firstly, no rank has any more importance than any other and secondly, if one discovers new patterning it is a fairly simple process to create a new rank to handle it.  
(Coulthard, 1977:100)

Wild Nouns are, therefore, as suggested, highly unspecific plural nouns which can appear in different pragmatic categories, the placing of which in one category or another will depend on the semantic load given to them by the pre- or post-modifying elements. Potential Wild Nouns could be any of the following Enumerables:

aspects	dimensions	points
areas	issues	ranks
degrees	levels	stages

#### 2.2.4. Potential Nouns

The fourth group is formed by plural nouns which are semantico-pragmatically related to the noun '*possibilities*' which is the paradigm. Potential nouns, then refer to the *possibilities* of the whole. Included in this group are the following nouns:

choices  
options  
possibilities

The following is an example in which the Enumerable 'options' occurs in connection with a Technical Phrase 'in HPR (Handling Previous Research)'.



(73) He suggests that the writer has two options in HPR (Handling Previous Research), one is to make an appeal to the readership by asserting the importance of the topic, the other is to give a more descriptive survey of current knowledge including references to previous research.

(Dudley, 1986:131)

and in this one the Enumerable is 'choices' in connection with another System Noun 'system'.

The key system offers three choices, high, mid and low...

(Coulthard, 1977:124)

#### 2.2.5. Manner Nouns

The plural nouns included in this class refer to the ways of the whole, ways being the paradigm. This group includes:

forms  
respects  
ways

This is an example of an occurrence of 'ways':

(73) By this stage the students have been introduced to six ways of responding to previous informatives: amplification, contradiction, counter, restriction, explanation, consequence.

(Coulthard, 1977:146)

where the members of the lexical realization constitute categories as 'ways' sometimes has a 'classificatory' component. By contrast, in this second example the members of the lexical realization do not constitute categories.

- (39) The A-noun may combine with a reference item in two ways. First, it may be modified by it as in this example:

E.g.

Second it may be the complement of the reference item, in which case the A-member takes the form ...

(Francis, 1987:27-8)

The Enumerable 'forms' in the following example can be paraphrased by 'ways'.

- (74) I hypothesise that reading can take several forms, and that discourses have developed in response to these forms. We may read in a quick, even skimming fashion, ... Alternatively we may read to all... A third possible reading strategy, however, is to scan a discourse with a view to finding the answer to a particular question.

(Hoey, 1986:22-3)

Finally 'respects' is a semantico-pragmatically associated noun.

- (75) This has significance in two respects. Firstly, from a developmental perspective, many instances of context-bound writing occurred in the corpus of which the most simple were exaphoric references outside the text to the context of teaching or the textbook in use. The use of metastructuring devices stands, in a sense, at the opposite pole indicating a highly self-aware approach to the creation of a self-sufficient text. In the second place, the use of metastructuring devices may prove, after I more extensive investigation that I have been able to conduct, to be a significant feature in the differentiation of types of written discourse.

(Harris, 1986:153)

### 2.2.6. Hierarchical Nouns

As their name indicates, these are nouns that establish hierarchies in the whole, the paradigm being thus *hierarchies*. The ranks that they establish can be organized in three ways: according to temporal sequence; according to degree of complexity and at random. Some of them are highly Unspecific, therefore, they can be also considered 'wild nouns'. Examples of Hierarchical Nouns are:

- degrees
- levels
- ranks
- stages
- dimensions

To begin with, I present an example in which the Enumerable 'degrees' appears, and in which the members of the lexical realization are organized according to temporal sequence.

- (76) Lyons (1968) suggests that there are **three degrees** of idealization between raw data and the idealized sentences of Chomsky's competence.

The first stage is *regularization* in which the analyst ignores such phenomena as slips of tongue, hesitations, repetitions, self-editing and so on. The second stage is *standardisation* in which one ignores variation and treats whatever data one is examining as homogeneous - thus at the phonemic level, different pronunciations of the same 'word' are treated as if they were the same; at the level of discourse variants of a misapprehension sequence are all regarded as occurrences of the same unit ... The third stage of idealisation involves *decontextualisation*, which separates sentences from full contexts of use or occurrence and treats them as self-contained and isolated units.

(Coulthard, 1977:9)

In the example presented above 'degrees' is used as the anticipatory noun of the different stages that the linguist has to go through to get 'idealized data'. This is, therefore a temporal relationship as each of the degrees defines a conventional step in the linguist's process. It is important to see that in each of the members of the lexical realization Coulthard does not use the noun 'degree' but 'stage' which is normally (in the plural) the Hierarchical noun that anticipates temporal sequence levels, as can be seen in the following example:

- (5) He describes three major categories of transaction  
 - market auctions, other market transactions, shop transactions - although the second and third are distinguished mainly by situation as they share the following five stages

- 1 - Salutation
- 2 - Enquiry as to the object of sale
- 3 - Investigation of the object of sale
- 4 - Bargaining
- 5 - Conclusion

(Coulthard, 1977:5)

in which the temporal sequence of the 'stages' can be clearly appreciated. In my data, I have another example, which establishes a more complex relationship between the 'stages':

- (77) For a description of the development of the progressive, it is useful to give an account of the overall pragmatic development of the learner language of our informants. Vogel (1987) distinguishes two functional stages. Their relation is additive, which means that stage B does not place stage A out but adds new referential possibilities. The two stages are characterized as follows

Stage A: the learner refers to entities which are present in the there and now of the communicative situation, which is dominated by non-verbal

actions.

Stage B: the learner begins to refer to entities outside the here and now of the communicative situation, which is dominated by non-verbal actions.

(Vogel & Bahms, 1989:187)

The authors in this example want to convey a relationship which is not exactly the one conveyed by 'stages' i.e. one after the other. That is why they are compelled to make textually explicit the 'overlapping' that exists between the two stages.

Sometimes, the hierarchies anticipated by the Hierarchical Enumerables are organized according to degree of complexity as in the following case where the Enumerable 'levels' occurs.

- (33) In any spoken text there are at least **four major levels** of organization - phonology, grammar, discourse and non-linguistic.

(Coulthard, 1977:6)

There are some other cases where the hierarchies anticipated by the Hierarchical Enumerables do not correspond either to a temporal organization or to one based on degree of complexity. The organization, thus, responds to the writer's own way of organizing his text. In my data, the Hierarchical Noun that fulfills this role is 'dimensions'. This is one example:

- (78) Each audio-recorded lesson was analysed into a string of such segments, which were coded on a number of different dimensions: Topic of discourse, pattern of language, activity, pupil mode of (linguistic) involvement, and class grouping.

(Mitchell, 1989:198)

where, obviously, there is no hierarchical relationship established among the members of the lexical realization. The 'dimensions' here are analytical categories necessary for the analysis of the lessons. Thus, it is the writer himself who allots these categories the label of 'dimensions'. "Dimensions" is another example of a 'Wild Noun'.

The following is another example where the Enumerable 'dimensions' occurs.

- (79) Any description of ways of speaking' will need to provide data along **four interrelated dimensions**:
- i) the linguistic resources available to a speaker - how many different styles he can choose from;
  - ii) supra-sentential structuring - how many differently structured linguistic events, like trials, religious ceremonies, songs are recognized;
  - iii) the rules of interpretation by which a given set of linguistic items comes to have a given communicative value;
  - iv) the norms which govern different types of interaction.
- (Coulthard, 1977:31)

where this Enumerable has a similar role to the example presented before.

#### 2.2.7. Exemplificatory Nouns

These plural nouns refer to the examples of the whole the paradigm being thus examples. This group includes then

- cases
- examples
- instances
- exceptions

Their label originates from the fact that the value of these words is basically pragmatic, ie their function for exemplificatory purposes. See the following case:

- (80) The following examples from Labov (1970) are grammatically unexceptional yet noticeably odd
- A: What is your name?  
 B: Well, let's say you may have thought you had something from before but you haven't got it any more.  
 A: I'm going to call you Dean.  
 A: I feel hot today.  
 B: No.

(Coulthard, 1977:7)

where the two lexical realizations are the two short dialogues that illustrate the point that Coulthard, quoting Labov, wants to make.

Another plural noun that fulfills the same exemplificatory role is 'instances'.

- (13) Many instances of semantic compatibility, if not synonymy can also can be found: 'he wrote' and 'words'; 'he said' and 'statement'; 'he suggested' and 'hypothesis'; 'he began... he went on... he narrated' and 'story'; and more complex relations like the use of 'worldly chorus' to label 'the claims of mammon, job creation, economic growth and ever higher tech'.

(Francis, 1987:9)

The plural noun 'exceptions' plays a role which can be compared to that of 'examples' as 'exceptions' are examples which do not follow the rules as in the following case:

- (81) There are exceptions to this, as has already been noted. Some adjacent sections of a statute are cohesive and can be read as continuous prose, e.g. [adjacent sections]  
(Hoey, 1986:7-8)

### 2.2.8. Text Nouns

This group of plural nouns is formed by nouns that refer to the formal parts of the whole, which in this case is the text itself. These nouns, then, label stretches of discourse.

Enumerables belonging to this group are:

sentences  
utterances  
paragraphs  
sections  
chapters

In the following case the Enumerable 'sections' is a Text noun.

- (82) This, however, does not contradict our earlier claims concerning colonies. In the first place, all similarly functioning components are in a Matching Relation with each other, in other words, it is not important whether they are adjacent or not. In the second place, the relations are weak. Consider the following two sections from the Badgers Act

[sections follow]

(Hoey, 1986:15)

The plural noun 'utterances' in the following example is also a text noun.

- (31) In each of the following utterances, Searle suggests, the speaker expresses the propositions that 'John will leave the room', that is he predicates the action of leaving the room of John.



though only' in the second does he perform the illocutionary act of 'asserting'.

Will John leave the room?

John will leave the room.

John, leave the room!

If John will leave the room I will leave also.

(Coulthard, 1977:22)

### 2.2.9. Topical Nouns

These plural nouns also refer to the parts of the whole, the whole being in this case the 'discursive topic or situation'.

Included in this group are the following nouns:

factors	problems
facts	things
issues	topics
matters	

The first noun to be presented is 'facts'. Halliday and Hasan (1976) suggest that one of the potentialities of discourse (or text) is that of expressing 'facts' and they consider 'facts' a general noun. 'Facts' as a Topical Enumerable occurs in the following example:

- (83) Let's consider the actual facts of the present situation. For our purposes, the most significant facts are these: the inhabitants of every civilized country are menaced; all desire passionately to be saved from impending disaster; the overwhelming majority refuse to change the habits of thought, feeling and action which are directly responsible for present plight.

(Huxley, 1939:123)

Another noun which is also considered a General Noun by Halliday and Hasan and which has a similar discourse functional value is 'things'. One example is the following:

(84) I was learning that - like the howler monkey screams and voices in the dark - many things in Central America aren't what they seem. First, the Maya people not only haven't left throughout much of the region but they outnumber the descendants of their European conquerors, though they live in poverty outside the economic, social and political mainstream.

Second, the tropical forests are not fearsome, snake-infested saunas that only an Indiana Jones could love, but ecological cornucopias that provided the ancient Maya a good living.

(Garret, 1989:435)

I have also included here the Enumerable 'problems' as this can be paraphrased as 'negative fact' or 'negative thing'. One example is the following:

(8) One of the problems is that much of the research in the Area of Applied Linguistics and particularly in Discourse and Text Analysis has not appeared to provide immediate and direct assistance in needs analysis and syllabus design, and has consequently been largely ignored in ESP work.

(Dudley-Evans, 1987:129)

'Issues' is another Enumerable in this class, and it is also a Wild Noun owing to its high degree of unspecificness. For instance in the following example 'issues' can be paraphrased as 'controversial topics'.

(7) It is my purpose here to explore one of the key issues of technique and theory - namely the mechanisms of psychoanalytic interpretation.

(Levin, 1974:231)

whereas in this example 'issues' does not seem to have the negative component:

- (85) Both Sargant and Frank studies have highlighted the two core issues of this anthology: the universality of certain elements of the psychotherapeutic response and the relevance of specific cultural factors both to the content and to the technique of psychotherapy.

(Kiev, 1979:8)

#### 2.2.10. Verbal/Cognitive Process Result Nouns (VCPRNs)

These plural nouns make explicit the results of verbal processes such as 'imply'/'implications' or 'make a point'/'points', or cognitive processes such as 'generalize'/'generalizations'. In fact, it is very difficult to decide whether the processes are verbal or cognitive because, as Francis (1987:9), says when talking about A-nouns, 'the world of cognition is mirrored in the world of discourse, and the views and opinions we hold are often seen in terms of the ways they are expressed'. It is not my intention here to get into such a difficult semantic/pragmatic issue. The VCPRNs that I have found in my data are the following ones:

assumptions	objections
comments	observations
definitions	points
generalizations	questions
hypotheses	reflections
implications	remarks
limitations	suggestions

A VCPRN that often appears as an Enumerable is 'implications' as in the following example:

- (14) This colony-like exploitation of 'mainstream' discourses has certain implications for the testing of reading and writing. It certainly suggests that to test reading as if it were a single skill ....

For writing too there seem to be implications. Lukmani (1985) produces ... Sutherland (1985) cites Malaysian ...

(Hoey, 1987:23-4)

This case deserves two observations. The first one is that no numeral appears but 'certain'. Nevertheless, the word has a similar role to the quantifier 'some'. The second is that the lexical realization by virtue of the modification in the anticipatory member, 'for reading and writing', refers to an extra-textual reality. This means that the implications take the reader to another domain, different from that of the text itself. To make this clear I will show another example where 'implications' does not depart from the domain of the text itself. In Coulthard (1977), this author is talking about 'genres' and he says:

- (86) The cultural implications of an inappropriate use of a particular genre like prayer may of course differ, in one culture the result may be laughter, in another death.

(Coulthard, 1977:39)

Where the 'implications' refer to the topic itself, do not go out to another extra-textual domain. Going back to my first example of 'implications' I would like to make a third observation.

If we focus on the second member of the lexical realization of 'implications', we can see that it is realized through the 'quoting' of two authors Lucmani and Sutherland. This is an example of "discourse cross-reference", which refers to the fact that some discourses are built on other discourses. Quotations, thus, are the clearest and commonest form of this phenomenon.

Another case of VCPRNs is the following in which the plural noun 'objections' is used.

(87) Three objections might be made to some of the inclusions in the above list. First, it may be pointed out that some of the discourse types just listed have a very rigid sequence...

The second objection relates to the last point. Several of the putative colonies listed contain groupings the integrity of which....

The third objection that may be done is that if one resequences the stories...

(Hoey, 1986:6)

Now, I would like to compare the example presented above with the following one:

(88) A number of literary critics also objected to a generalized metaphoric definition: Bonnie Zimmerman, for instance, called it reductionist; Gloria Bowles argued that the term was too general, and Catherine Simpson derided it as 'a fancily labelled metaphor'.

(Farwell, 1988:102)

because in both cases the members of the lexical realizations are objections. Nevertheless, in the second example, the numeral-like expression 'a number of' does not modify the plural noun 'objected' but the nominal phrase 'literary critics' and

then the verb 'objected' is used. In this kind of construction the verb seems to carry the pragmatic force otherwise carried by the noun.

Now, I will present another case where the VCPRN 'limitations' is used, and which is in itself another instance of "discourse cross-reference".

- (89) The main limitations are apparent in these studies. The linguistic features isolated not only raise descriptive problems when related to development - for example, in counting the incidence of relative clauses ... - but also, on the evidence of the studies themselves, the features appear useful only investigating the development of immature abilities ... The second limitation is that the frequency count approach has been used with little attention to variation in types of text.

(Harris, 1986:147)

because 'limitations' refers to 'these studies' which is a plural noun that is used in most cases to refer to other discourses (see below).

Another plural noun that belongs to this category is 'assumptions' as in the following case:

- (17) It is dependent on a number of key assumptions: that a common set of categories can be applied to produce a valid picture of a series of unique events (lessons and incidents within them), that an observer can 'read' the intentions of the teacher regarding the kind of language experience being provided for his/her pupils, from inspection of his/her own behaviour; and perhaps (most controversially from a learning perspective) that pupils in classroom normally interpret ongoing activity in the way that the teacher intends, and are usually focussing on those aspects of language

which are sanctioned in the 'official' lesson plan.

(Mitchell, 1989:199)

In this other example the Enumerable 'questions' is used.

(35) The following key questions are raised in the literature dealing with this particular teaching problem.

- a) Which verb form should be introduced first - the progressive form or the simple verb form (of the present tense)?
- b) What are the situational contexts in which sentences in the progressive should be introduced first?

(Vogel & Bahms, 1989:187)

Again here below, another instance of discourse cross-reference, can be seen, in which the authors of the 'criticisms' are mentioned. The lexical realizations of 'criticisms' are summaries of the ideas expressed by the authors.

(90)

A number of criticisms have been made of the Swales model. Various writers (Bley-Vroman and Selinker, 1984 and Crookes, 1984) have spoken of the difficulties of separating Moves 1 and 2 and Swales (personal communication) now accepts that these two moves should be conflated to a single move, 'Handling Previous Research' (HPR). He suggests that the writer has two options in HPR, one is to make an appeal to the readership by asserting the importance of the topic, the other is to give a more descriptive survey of current knowledge including references to previous research.

More fundamental criticism of the model has come from Crookes (1984) who studied 24 introductions taken from various academic disciplines. Eight of the papers, from the area of social science, had much longer introductions than the rest, and the moves were organised more cyclically creating such patterns as 123, 23, 23, 4. Crookes also found no Move 3 in seven of the shorter introductions.

Cooper (1985) looked at 15 articles from the publications of the Institute of Electrical and Electronic Engineering (IEEE). She found that

the Swales Four-Move model did not fit these introductions, and that in particular, three and probably four of the articles did not have a Move 2, and three did not have a Move 3. Furthermore although all the introductions had a Move 4, it often did more than just introduce the research, and frequently went on to justify the work done. Finally seven of the articles had a sequence different from that proposed by Swales.

Hopkins (1985) looked at 5 papers taken from a collection of conference papers on irrigation and drainage. Only one of the papers contained all 4 moves, two had Moves 1,3 and 4 and two had only Move 4.

(Dudley-Evans, 1988: 131-2)

In my data I have found many instances of the plural noun 'points'. Let's look at one example.

- (29) With respect to this cohesive role, two initial points must be made. The first is that cohesion is not achieved by the A-noun alone but by the combination of an A-noun and a definite reference item ...

The second point is that the classes of A-noun, taken together, bear some resemblance to the class of 'general Nouns' identified by Halliday and Hasan (1976).

(Francis, 1987:27-8)

It is important to see that, in this case, the Enumerable 'points' could be changed into 'aspects'. Of course, this would involve a paraphrase in the sentence in which the Enumerable is embedded, something such as 'Two aspects of this cohesive role have to be highlighted'. My point, here, is that some VCPRNs such as 'points' can also be considered 'Wild Nouns'. In this other example, 'points' is used in a similar fashion to the example presented above.

- (91) Two points are of interest. One is that the crucial stages in the pattern are frequently marked by the conjunctive items - typically adversative when a new problem arises - and I draw attention in the full study to the comparative absence of these in the corpus (Harris, 1980). We



can also see that the use of the in the breakthrough came.S.10, which might seem to be a Confirmatory Signal or reference item without antecedent, is more naturally explicable as signalling that the solution about to be reported is, in fact, the solution to the problem stated...  
(Harris, 1986:166)

The next example in which the discursive item 'point' is also included shows the relationship existing between A-nouns and Enumerables.

- (92) The characteristic relations between their propositions is not the only point of contrast between colonies and narratives. Another that appears at first sight particularly clear is that the narrative is bound together by cohesive ties between adjacent (or near adjacent) sentences, whereas the colony is in most cases not so bound.  
(Hoey, 1986:17)

where in the first sentence 'point' is an A-noun that refers back to some previous paragraphs and summarises their content. However, in this sentence the adverb 'only' is used to predict the existence of another 'point'. This 'point' is then textually realized in a structure needed by 'another' thus anaphorically referring to 'only' and then the 'that' clause actually realizes the 'point'. The choice of this kind of organization depends heavily on the argumentative development of Hoey's discourse. Nevertheless, had the text had a different argumentative structure, he could have chosen to use the 'numeral + Enumerable' phrase 'two points of contrast exist between colonies and narratives'.

The Enumerable 'remarks' plays a similar role to that of 'points'. In the example below, 'remarks' can be easily replaced by 'points'.

- (15) There are some further remarks to be made about both types of X-member specified above. First, many of the nouns used in reporting structures (of both direct and indirect reports) may also occur as A-nouns. They are not of course identified .... Secondly, in identifying type b) above I have followed Tadros (1981:266) in rejecting the distinction made by Widdowson (1979:120) between 'indirect speech', introduced by 'say' and the reporting of the illocutionary act which the speaker is interpreted as having performed ... A final point concerns the reasons for which a writer chooses direct rather than indirect reporting or vice-versa. Whenever the report is direct ...

(Francis, 1987:74-5)

Here my claim has clear support as Francis herself uses the noun 'point' to introduce the final member of the lexical realization.

Also forming part of the group of VCPRNs, I have found a series of Enumerables which are pragmatically related. These plural nouns are:

approaches	theories
attempts	studies
models	systems

The pragmatic relation that exists among them is that they refer to self-contained discourse/texts, ie to organized bodies of ideas. These are Enumerables which are generally used discourse cross-referentially.

The following example taken from Coulthard (1977) includes the plural noun 'systems'.

- (93) There are however, three descriptive systems which do attend closely to the linguistic data - Barnes (1969), Flanders (1970) and Bellack et al (1966). Barnes...

[several paragraphs]

The descriptive system proposed by Barnes is intentionally partial, and only handles selected items in the data; one which categorizes all the data is Flanders (1970). The basic system ...

[several paragraphs]

The system proposed by Bellack et al (1966) is the most suggestive for those interested in techniques of discourse analysis ...

[several paragraphs]

(Coulthard, 1977:93-9)

As can be seen the use of the 'numeral + Enumerable' phrase 'three descriptive systems' produces a lexical realization seven pages long. This is a clear example of a text built on discourse cross-reference.

In this other case the Enumerable is 'studies'

- (43) ... there are a number of studies in which quantifiable features have been isolated and norms of attainment suggested for children at successive stages. Such an approach is best represented by the work in America of LaBrant (1933), Kellogg Hunt (1963) and Loban (1963, 1976), and in England, of Harpin (1973).

(Harris, 1986:147)

where the 'studies' are only named, not described as in the case of 'systems' presented before. It is interesting to see that the 'number of studies' then becomes an 'approach', as it is anaphorically referred to.

It is very common to find the plural noun 'attempts' generally modified by an infinitive of purpose like 'to study' or 'to analyse', used in a similar fashion to 'studies', as in the following example:

- (31) In the intervening period there are only two isolated attempts to study supra-sentential structure, one based on a written text, by Harris, the other based on a collection of spoken text by Mitchell.

Harris's article, although it has the promising title 'Discourse Analysis' is in fact disappointing...

In marked contrast to Harris, Mitchell's 'Buying and Selling in Cyrenaica' presents a semantically motivated analysis ...

(Coulthard, 1977:5)

I will round up this sub-group by presenting an example in which the plural noun 'approaches' occurs. The reason for the inclusion of this plural noun in this sub-group is that an 'approach', although different from the already mentioned plural nouns refers to the formal and/or methodological aspects of 'models', 'theories' and the like.

- (16) In putting together the articles I have tried to represent the different approaches to be found in this branch of L2 acquisition research.

One approach that has a long history in the application of general psychological or linguistic theories.

The second approach involves applying the findings of studies of naturalistic L2 acquisition ...

Neither of these two approaches involves investigating what happens inside the classroom. This third approach is based on the study of learning-teaching behaviours which actually take place in the course of language lessons ...

Classroom process research is descriptive rather than explanatory. It is unable

to tell us how classroom behaviours contribute to learning because it does not examine what learning takes place.

The fourth approach - which might be labelled process-result research - attempts to do just this.

The fifth approach involves looking inside the learner in order to examine the strategies or tactics used to obtain L2 input.

(Ellis, 1989:185-6)

An interesting feature of this example has to be highlighted. In almost all the members of the lexical realization the other members of the sub-group appear: in the first one 'theories'; in the second, 'studies', in the third 'study' and in the fourth the verb 'to attempt', which fulfills the role of the noun 'attempt'.

#### 2.2.11. Relational Nouns

Discourse has the potentiality of establishing RELATIONS among its parts (this idea is based on Winter's notion of Clause Relations). One type of Relation is that which makes overt the discourse potentialities of establishing Differences or Similarities. Thus, if I say 'I have a blue book, I have a red book', I can make this relation overt by saying 'I have two different books: one is red and the other is blue'. One example from my corpus is the following in which the Enumerable 'differences' appears.

- (94) There are two major differences between the notional and functional categories suggested by Wilkins and Abbs and those used by the discourse analysts whose work has been discussed in the earlier chapters: firstly, they are truly 'notional' and there is no indication of where they are derived from nor any suggestion that there are any reliable realization rules. Secondly, the authors are concerned with single units, usually utterances and have no overt concept of discourse structure.

(Coulthard, 1977:143)

where the plural noun 'differences' is used to compare 'categories' of different authors, thus helping to build up the discourse.

On the other hand, there are other Enumerables which make explicit other language relations such as Time, Purpose, Reason and Condition. These are Relations which are generally discursively realized by means of 'linearity' and use of 'subordinators' and 'adjuncts'. The following example shows, however, how the Enumerable 'times' makes explicit the temporal capacity of discourse.

- (95) Ervin Tripp observes that the policeman insulted the doctor three times. Firstly, he employed a social selector for race in addressing him as 'boy'; secondly, he treated the reply as a failure to answer, a non-name; thirdly, he repeated the term 'boy' emphasising the irrelevance of the name Dr Poussaint.

(Coulthard, 1977:48)

Second, another Relational Noun is 'purposes' which makes overt the 'purpose relation' which is generally discursively realized by expressions such as 'in order to'. One example is the following:

- (96) The main purposes envisaged for communicative FL use in the classroom were thus (a) to provide motivation and build learners confidence, and (b) to provide practice in using knowledge already learned in situations analogous to real world contexts (primarily role-play). The stronger claim that such experiences should be the main framework for encountering language was not generally accepted.

(Mitchell, 1989:201)

The next one is a similar example which includes the Enumerable 'tenets':

- (97) Barnes has two major educational tenets; that pupils should be encouraged to participate and draw on their own knowledge and experience as much as possible; and that teachers' questioning should be more concerned with stimulating thinking than eliciting factual information.

(Coulthard, 1977:93)

and another one is 'objects' as in:

- (98) Since its inception it has had two objects. First, to act as an information centre for those mostly elderly and often lonely people who, while not actively seeking for Euthanasia, want to know more about it; and second, to give guidance to those seeking Euthanasia because of an incurable disease or infirmity.

(Kennedy, 1990:29)

Third, another plural noun which makes overt a relational property of discourse is 'reasons' as in:

- (99) But evidence from actual children is not of prime importance to the theory for two reasons. First of all, the theory claims that acquisition research can establish what must be built-in to the mind without reference to an actual ... Secondly, the theory separates the idealized picture of

acquisition, that is, its concern for the history of the child's actual development.

(Cook, 1989:173)

Fourthly, there is a group of semantically associated nouns that make explicit the discourse potentiality of establishing 'conditions', which can be clearly seen, for instance, in 'if' constructions. These plural nouns are 'conditions', 'rules', 'criteria' and 'guidelines'. Let's consider two instances.

(100) There are four conditions which must be satisfied if the performative is not to misfire

1. There must exist an accepted conventional procedure, having a certain conventional effect, to include the uttering of certain words by certain persons in certain circumstances...
2. The particular persons in certain circumstances in a given case must be appropriate for the invocation of the particular procedure involved...
3. The procedure must be executed by all participants both correctly
4. and completely.

(Coulthard, 1977:12-3)

(101) In 1981, in response to the growing demand and practice of euthanasia by the medical profession, the Rotterdam criminal court set out **guidelines** for euthanasia which, if followed, would be unlikely to render the doctor concerned liable for prosecution:

1. There must be physical or mental suffering which the patient finds unbearable.
2. The wish to die must be sustained.
3. The decision to die must be the voluntary act, given in writing, of the patient.
4. The patient must have a clear understanding of his condition and of any other possibilities in the way of treatment open to him.
5. No other solution is acceptable to the patient.
6. The time and manner of death must not cause avoidable misery to the patient's family, who should be kept informed of the situation at all stages.



7. The decision to give aid in dying must not be that of one doctor alone. Another doctor, who has no professional or social relationship with the first, must be consulted and give his approval.
8. Only a fully-qualified doctor will prescribe the correct drugs and administer them.
9. The decision to give aid in dying and the actual administering of it must be done with utmost care.
10. The patient need not be terminally ill(i.e.) the decision could be that of a paralogic.  
(Kennedy in SO 220490:29)

In these two examples the relational nouns are 'conditions' and 'guidelines'. It is important to point out that these words predict not only lexical members but also some of the formal characteristics of these members. For instance, this kind of Enumerable may predict clauses in which modals such as 'must', 'should' or 'ought to' will be used. In the two examples presented above the predominant modal is 'must'. Another formal pattern of lexical realization which can also be predicted by this kind of Enumerable can be seen in the following example:

- (22) An interrogative is to be interpreted as a command if it fulfills all the following conditions.
- i) if it contains one of the modals can, could, will, would (and sometimes going to)
  - ii) if the subject of the clause is also the addressee
  - iii) if the predicate describes an action which is physically possible at the time of the utterance.
- (Coulthard, 1977:110)

where the use of the 'if' clause in the predictive member predicts the use of the indicative mood in the members of the lexical realization.

Finally, I have also included in this group other plural nouns such as 'relations' and 'functions' which have a highly instrumental role in discourse. 'Relations' would be the paradigm of this group and it occurs in the following example:

- (102) As with the statute, however, there are many relations between non-adjacent components as between adjacent. Consider for example,  
[example]  
(Hoey, 1986:9)

while 'functions' occurs in this other example

- (103) The meaning components mentioned so far cannot, however, account for the following three other functions which do not seem to be connected to its semantic basis: future time reference (I'm coming tomorrow); emphasis on habitual events (He's always cheating); free variation with verbs referring to states (you're looking good today).  
(Vogel & Bahms, 1989:186-7)

### 2.3. Technical Nouns

Technical Nouns are Enumerables which are used in specific domains of science. (When I say 'specific', I do not mean 'exclusive', as in many cases one Technical Noun can be used in various related areas of science). As already suggested, these nouns are not inherently Unspecific like System Nouns, but they become Unspecific, in determined discursive Environments. Clear examples of Technical Nouns are nouns such as 'cells' in biology, 'therapies' in psychology or 'axes' in geometry.

Most of the data I have collected comes from the field of Discourse Analysis. I have discovered that, in this kind of discourse, there are two types of Technical Enumerables. The first one is formed by nouns which refer directly to its object of study: discourse itself such as 'speech acts', 'moves', 'languages', 'styles', 'speech events', 'colonies', etc. Let's consider one example where the Technical Enumerable 'acts' occurs.

- (2) Austin reconsiders the senses in which 'to say something may be to do something' and concludes that 'in issuing an utterance a speaker can perform three acts simultaneously: a *locutionary* act which is the act of saying something in the full sense of 'say'; an *illocutionary* act which is an act performed in saying something, the act identified by the explicit performative; and a *perlocutionary* act performed by the result of saying'.

(Coulthard, 1977:17)

In this example, the plural noun 'acts' becomes a Technical Noun due to the fact that it is modified by the Cataphoric Discourse Reference Item 'three' (EI). In this way, as already suggested, it becomes "prominent". Being prominent, then it thus turns out to be a topic marker'. Interestingly, this piece of text is part of a chapter entitled 'Speech Acts'. In it Coulthard reviews Austin's own notion of 'speech acts' for seven pages, without mentioning the 'speech acts' themselves. It is at this point of his chapter that 'speech acts' are introduced. Therefore, Coulthard used Enumerability as the way of showing the importance of this item within his own argument.

There is another instance from the same source (Coulthard, 1977) in which in another chapter, the noun 'acts' also appears.

- (104) ... while the third, follow-up move typically the teacher's and concerned with fitting the reply into the ongoing discourse, can consist of up to three acts - an *accept*, which takes the information offered into the discourse, an *evaluation* which assesses its worth and relevance, and a *comment* which contributes new related information.

(Coulthard, 1977:107)

One point to be made about this example is that the meaning of 'acts' is different from that of the example presented before, thus demonstrating the importance of the 'lexical realization'.

Within this group of Technical Nouns I have found words that have a long established status within the realm of linguistics, such as 'nouns' or 'pronouns' as in:

- (105) In the 16th century, English, like many modern European languages distinguished two second person pronouns, 'you' and 'thou'. It was custom for nobles to use 'you' reciprocally, to receive 'you' from the inferiors but to address them as 'thou'.

(Coulthard, 1977:48)

Furthermore, there are a series of compound nouns which I have also included in this category such as '(lexical) signals', 'information units' and 'temporal items'. These Enumerables are formed by a modifier ('lexical', 'information', 'temporal') plus nouns that can be considered System Nouns. 'Units' and 'items' can be included in the class of Partitive Nouns, while Signals can be included within the relational Enumerables. Yet, I have

considered them Technical Nouns because they have become commonplace as compounds within Discourse Analysis, as they have acquired Lexical Uniqueness. See the following example where the Technical Enumerable Compound 'information units' occurs.

- (10) The A-member can be divided into two information units, one of which is the A-noun itself, presented as the GIVEN and signalling the writer's incorporation of the preceding stretch of discourse into the ongoing argument. The term 'presented' is important here; as has been pointed out, the A-noun is in fact a new lexical item, and by virtue of its conceptual meaning may add something to the 'given' that it labels, by expressing a particular attitude towards it that it has not previously been made explicit.

The rest of the A-member must be presented as NEW in relation to the A-noun.

(Francis, 1987:31-2)

The striking feature of all the Technical Enumerables of this kind is that, in contrast with Technical Enumerables from other domains, these words are metalinguistic, ie they are used to refer to language itself, as language or discourse is the object of Linguistics and Discourse Analysis.

The second group of Technical Enumerables found in my data is formed by plural nouns which do not refer directly to language or discourse. Consequently, these Enumerables are not metalinguistic. In the following example the Technical Enumerable is 'participants'.

- (105) Traditionally speech has been described in terms of two participants, a speaker who transmits a message and a listener who receives it.

(Coulthard, 1977:43)

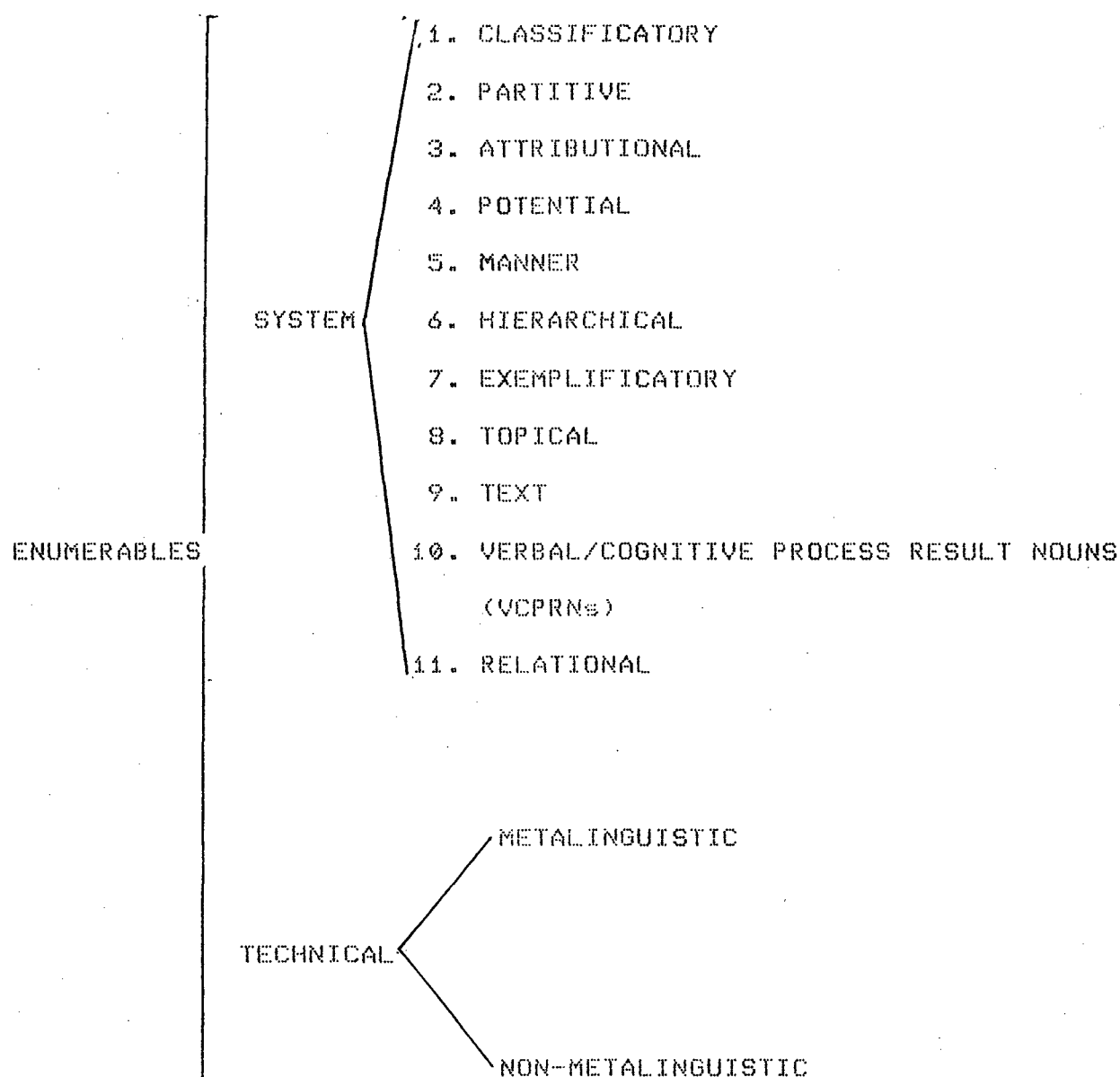
The use of this Technical Enumerable highlights the closed connection that exists between present linguistic studies, namely discourse analysis, and other scientific domains such as anthropology and communication, thus also emphasising the interdisciplinary nature of Discourse Analysis (For further information about this issue see Halliday, 1978:11). In this other case the Technical Enumerable is 'courses', a plural noun that belongs to the domain of Language Teaching and Methodology

- (106) Johns (ms) presents selected materials from two courses, one from foreign teachers and the other for intending seminar participants.

(Coulthard, 1977:143)

#### 2.4. Summary Scheme of The Semantico-Pragmatic Value of Enumerables

In this chapter I have explored the semantico-pragmatic value of Enumerables. Two big groups of Unspecific nouns have been identified and described: System and Technical. The classification I made of Enumerables has many different types of System nouns. Technical nouns on the other hand, are divided into only two groups: Metalinguistic and Non-Metalinguistic. The following diagram summarizes the taxonomy.



In the next and last chapter I consider the fundamental role of Enumerable as Discourse Organization Devices.

## CHAPTER III

### ENUMERABLES WITHIN WINTER AND HOEY'S MODEL OF DISCOURSE

#### ANALYSIS: THE ORGANIZATIONAL VALUE OF ENUMERABLES

In this chapter I investigate the possibility of placing Enumerables within Winter and Hoey's framework of Discourse Analysis. First, I present a brief review of their ideas on Discourse Organization focussing on the notions of Clause Relations and Signalling. Next, I try to show why Enumerables can be considered what Winter calls Vocabulary 3 Items as they seem to be anticipators of Matching Relations. After that, I show the role that Enumerables play within the so-called General-Particular Patterns. Then, I introduce the notions of Enumerable-like items and Discourse Functional Collocations by presenting some examples. Finally, I round off this chapter by practically showing that Enumerables are discourse organizers.



### 3.1. A Brief Review of Winter and Hoey's Ideas on Discourse

#### Organization

Winter, and after him Hoey, studied the phenomenon of Discourse Relations. Starting from the basic premise that discourse is semantically organized, these authors suggest that this organization is realized through what they call **Clause Relations**. So, if I say or write

I lent him some money. He needed it.  
(Quirk et al. 1973:327 modified)

the listener/reader will immediately try to create a connection between the two sentences. This connection, probably interpreted as a consequence-cause one, is an example of what they label 'a Relation'. Yet, there are cases in which the Relation is not implicit but explicit. So, if I say or write

I lent him some money **because** he needed it.  
(Quirk et al: ibid.)

the listener/reader has a clear signal that the Relation is one of consequence-cause. This overt clue, in this case the subordinator 'because', is one instance of what they call 'lexical signalling'. It is important to point out that, according to Winter and Hoey, Clause Relations connect and make clear the meaning not only of clauses, but also of sentences, groups of sentences, paragraphs and even larger units of discourse. Consequently, instances of lexical signalling can

work making explicit, both local relations between adjacent clauses or sentences, and the network of relations realizing the global organization of the text.

Winter and Hoey claim that there are two main types of Clause Relations: Logical Sequence and Matching. The first type, Logical-Sequence is defined by Hoey (1983:19) as "a relation between successive events or ideas, whether actual or potential, the most basic of which being time-sequence". As in the following example:

He handed in a good essay. His previous essays were all poor.

(Quirk et al, 1973:286)

where the adjective 'previous' is signalling the time-sequence Relation. Cause-consequence and Instrument-achievement are among others, also examples of Logical Sequence Relations.

Matching Relations, the second type, are defined by Hoey (1983) as "Relations where statements are matched against each other in terms of degrees of identity of description". Within Matching Relations there are two subtypes. One is Matching Contrast, as in the following example:

I didn't ask her to leave. On the contrary, I tried to persuade her to stay.

(Quirk et al, 1973:292)

in which the Matching Contrast Relation is signalled by the conjunct 'on the contrary'. The other Matching Relation, Matching Compatibility is exemplified in the following

sentences:

There has been no progress in the negotiation between the union and the employers. The Union is determined to get more than what the employers have proposed. Equally, the employers have absolutely no intention of increasing their offer.

(Quirk et al, 1973:289)

where the conjunction 'equally' is making the Matching Compatibility overt.

Hoey demonstrates that repetition is the most important way of signalling a Matching Relation. For him, there are different forms of repetition, which are used to connect parts of a discourse. He (1983) points out that Systematic repetition can take four different forms. The first one is Repetition, which is the repeating of the same item, while the second one **Complex repetition** involves a repetition in which the second item differs from the first in the grammatical class. The third type, **Substitution** includes many of the forms of cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), personal pronouns, demonstrative adverbs and so on. The fourth and last type is Paraphrase, which is the repeating of the meaning of a word or clause using other different elements. It is important to point out that the phenomenon of Repetition goes from single words to complete sentences.

Repetition, however, is not item repetition as such, but "the significant repeating of one or more of the constituent features of the clause of a first member within the structure of a second member, where it becomes new sentence or part of a new

sentence" (Winter, 1981:7). The function of the repeated items in the clause is to provide a framework for the new item, called replacement. In this way, the repeated items provide the given information, whereas the replacement provides the new information, "Whether in any of its forms, systematic repetition provides a clause constant whereby the nature of the new information is recognized and its importance to the context assessed" (Hoey, 1983).

In spite of being the most important way to signal Matching Relations, Systematic Repetition is not the only one. Other means to signal Matching Relations are conjuncts, syntactic and semantic parallelism and lexical signals. Moreover, in some cases the Matching Relation can be made explicit by the use of certain questions such as "What is X?"; "Can you describe X so that I shall know it from non-X?"; "Can you give me an example of this feature of X?", "How does X compare with Y in this respect?" (Winter, 1981:5), or by the use of Paraphrases in which contrast or non-contrast conjuncts are used.

Hoey, following Winter, then, suggests that both Logical-Sequence Relations and Matching Relations can be made explicit in the text in three different ways by

- Subordinators, which he calls Vocabulary 1
  - Conjuncts, which he calls Vocabulary 2
  - Lexical signals, ... which he labels Vocabulary 3
- (Hoey, 1983:22)

The following examples illustrate these three options signalling one type of Logical-Sequence Relation.

- a) By appealing to scientists and technologists to support his party, Mr Wilson won many middle-class votes in the election.
- b) Mr Wilson appealed to scientists and technologists to support his party. He thereby won many middle-class votes in the election.
- c) Mr Wilson's appeals to scientists and technologists to support his party were **instrumental** in winning many middle-class votes in the election.

(Winter, 1977)

Hoey (1983:22) explains that "all three versions are examples of the Instrument-achievement Relation, signalled in a) by a Vocabulary 1 item, 'by-ing', i.e. a subordinator; b) by a Vocabulary 2 item, 'thereby', i.e. a conjunct; and in c) a Vocabulary 3 item, 'instrumental' for which there was previously no label".

On the other hand, these examples illustrate these three options signalling one type of Matching Relation.

- a) Whereas he was frugal and deeply religious, she was spendthrift and frankly worldly in all things.
- b) He was frugal and deeply religious; she, **however** was spendthrift and frankly worldly in all things.
- c) They differed radically in their approaches towards life. He was frugal and deeply religious, she was spendthrift worldly in all things.

(Winter, 1977:23-31)

which present in a) the Vocabulary 1 item 'whereas'; in b) the Vocabulary 2 item 'however' and in c) the Vocabulary 3 item 'differed', all of them signalling a Matching Contrast Relation.

From this, two important points emerge: the first one is that within their theory, some words or phrases, such as nouns, nominal phrases, adjectives, and even sentences, i.e. Vocabulary

3 items are attributed the same organizational role traditionally reserved only to subordinators and conjuncts. The second point is that the three classes of signalling are not really connectives, in the sense that they are not the means through which the Relations are realized, but the means by which the Relations are made explicit. The three classes fall, therefore into the general class of **Lexical Signalling of Clause Relations**.

According to Winter "one of the most important connective functions of Vocabulary 3 is that the presence of its items can signpost what kind of information is to be presented in the sentence or sentences which immediately follow it" (Winter, 1977:3). He calls this phenomenon 'anticipation' and what follows is called 'lexical realization'. Then, he adds "these two notions anticipation and lexical realization will enable us to show how the foregoing context may prepare us for a particular clause relation to follow" (Winter, 1977:4).

One aspect that remains to be discussed is the role of Lexical Signalling in Discourse Patterns. Discourse, according to Winter and Hoey, is semantically organized, the basic semantic relations being Clause Relations. But these Relations are only the foundations on which larger structures are built. Hoey, following Winter, calls these structure **Patterns**. A Pattern is, thus, defined as 'a combination of relations organizing (part of) a discourse' (Hoey, 1983:31).

Winter and Hoey identify two kinds of Discourse Patterns. The first one is the **Problem-Solution Pattern**. Within the line

begun by Winter, and then followed by Hoey and, also by Jordan, this is the Pattern which has been most deeply studied from the point of view of Lexical Signalling (See Hoey, 1979 and 1983; and Jordan, 1984).

The second kind, the General-Particular Pattern, has been less studied in this respect, although Hoey (1983) exemplifies some uses of Lexical Signalling. He distinguishes two types of General-Particular Patterns: the Generalization-Example Relation and the Preview-Detail Relation.

First, in the Generalization-Example Relation, there is usually a sentence or clause which is a generalization, while the subsequent sentences provide the examples justifying it. Look at the following example:

It is interesting to note that iconic models only represent certain features of the portion of the real world which they simulate. *For example*, a map will only contain those features which are of interest to the person using the map. *Similarly*, architects' models will be limited to include only those features which are of interest to the person considering employing the architect.

(Hoey, 1983:113)

where the relation is signalled by the use of 'for example' and 'similarly'.

Second, in the Preview-Detail Relation, there are two members: the Preview member and the Detail member. The latter supplies information about the former. Hoey suggests about this relation that

The Preview member, may contain no clues that it is part of a relation with a subsequent Detail member, or it may contain a clue in the form of listing, the extreme form of the latter being enumeration, which normally demands Detail to follow.

(Hoey, 1983:138)

### 3.2. Enumerables as Vocabulary 3 Items: The Anticipatory Function of Enumerables

As shown in the previous section Vocabulary 3 items are textual elements that can make explicit either of the two big groups of Clause Relations: Logical Sequence and Matching Relations. As also suggested, according to Winter (1977) in some cases the signalling function of Vocabulary 3 items can be anticipatory, that is, they 'can make explicit in advance what the next clause relation will be' (Winter, 1977:8). The following example illustrates this.

(1) There is significant contrast between the national mood now and that in 1964. (2) Then, despite the minuteness of Labour's majority, there was some sense of exhilaration: a feeling that new opportunities were opening for the country as a whole. (3) Now, this is missing. (Observer)

(Ibid.)

where the noun 'contrast' is anticipating a Matching Contrast Relation in the clauses that follow. The clause in which 'contrast' occurs is the anticipatory member, while the ensuing clauses are the anticipated members or lexical realization.

It is hypothesised, then that Enumerables are Vocabulary 3 items as they seem to anticipate Matching Relations among the



members of the lexical realization. Matching Relations are 'relations where statements are matched against each other in term of degrees of identity' (Winter, 1981). Before tackling the issue of repetition which, as suggested, is the basic way of signalling Matching Relations, it is important to have a look at the nature of lexical realizations, ie the different types of enumerations.

There are two major ways in which Enumerables are lexically realized by naming and by stating. One example of naming is the following:

- (73) By this stage the students have been introduced to six ways of responding to previous informatives, *amplification*, *contradiction*, *counter*, *restriction*, *explanation*, *consequence*.  
(Coulthard, 1977:145)

Stating is exemplified below:

- (98) Since, its inception it has had **two objects**.  
First, *to act as an information centre for those mostly elderly and often lonely people who, while not actively seeking for euthanasia want to know more about it*; and second *to give guidance to those seeking euthanasia because of an incurable disease or infirmity*.  
(Kennedy, 1990:20)

Besides, in the case of the 'split construction' (see 1.2.3.1) the two forms together, naming and stating can be found, as in the following example:

- (41) Sinclair (1981) distinguishes **two major aspects** of language in use, which he calls the *autonomous* and *interactive planes* of discourse.

*The autonomous plane is concerned with ...*  
*The interactive plane concerns the real time ...*  
 (Francis, 1987:33-4)

These two forms of lexical realization will obviously determine different kinds of signalling Matching Relations since in the case of naming only certain kinds of parallelism (semantic and syntactic) take place, while in the case of lexical realization by stating the phenomenon of repetition/replacement generally takes place.

Matching Relations can be signalled, as shown in section 3.1, in different ways. The members of lexical realization anticipated by Enumerables present a high rate of Repetition. According to Winter (1981) "these grammatical and lexical repetitions are sufficient to identify Matching Relations". The following is an example of the Technical Enumerable 'acts' anticipating members signalled by the occurrence of the combination Repetition/Replacement.

- (2) ... and concludes that in 'issuing an utterance' a speaker can perform three acts simultaneously: a *locutionary* act which is the act of saying something in the full sense of 'say'; an *illocutionary* act which is an act performed in saying something, the act identified by the explicit performative; and a *perlocutionary* act, the act performed *by* or *as* a result of saying.  
 (Coulthard, 1977:17)

where the main replacements in the members of the lexical realization separated by a semi-colon are the names of the acts: 'locutionary', 'illocutionary' and 'perlocutionary' together with the prepositions 'of' 'in' and 'by/as'. Winter (1981:8)

suggests that 'the communicative purpose of such replacement is to make the new clause in the second member lexically unique with respect to the original first member'. The replacements in the example above are instances of what Winter calls Symmetrical Matching, ie 'categories within a framework of like clauses' where both syntactical and lexical parallelism appear. As can be seen there is 'matching' here as regards 'the same', ie the repeated items and 'the different', ie the replaced items. Thus, just by looking at the members of the lexical realization themselves, it is not possible to discover whether the matching is one of Contrast or Compatibility. There are some cases, however, where the presence of antithetical terms may signal a contrast among the members as in the following example:

- (10) The A-members can be divided into two information units - one which is the A-noun itself, presented as *Given* ...; the rest of the A-member must be presented as *New* in relation to the A-noun.  
(Francis, 1987:31-2)

where the Matching Relation is signalled in the members by the antithetical pair formed by 'given/new'. In spite of this, it cannot be said at this point that the Matching Relation is one of 'Contrast' because 'whether a relation is one of Contrast or Compatibility will depend on what contextual factors are highlighted in a discourse for its effective use, ie the writer's communicative purpose (Hoey, 1983). I suggest, consequently, the analysis of both the anticipatory member and

the lexical realization in the light of the larger General-Particular Relation.

### 3.3. Enumerables and the General-Particular Relation

Winter and Hoey stated that Matching Relations are the basis of a larger relation, that of General-Particular. In this relation there are two main constituents, the General which governs the relation and the members which provide the Particulars. My hypothesis is now that there exists a special case of General-Particular relation in which the anticipatory member is an Enumerable within either EI, or EII or EIII working as the General Member (G-member), while the members of the lexical realization are the Particulars (P-members).

According to Hoey (1983), as suggested in 3.1, there are two main types of General-Particular, the Generalization-Example and the Preview-Detail. In one of the examples that Hoey (1983) gives of the Generalization-Example Pattern, an Enumerable playing this General role can be found.

Maps and architects' models, although both types of iconic model are very different in a number of important respects. For example, a map will only contain those features which are of interest to the person using the map, while architects' models, on the other hand, will be limited to include only those features which are of interest to the person considering employing the architect.

(Hoey, 1983:136)

In this example the Enumerable 'respects' appears within EI as the head of the G-member. Besides, the G-member includes the item 'different' that clearly anticipates a Matching Relation of Contrast. The P-members, apart from being signalled by syntactical and lexical repetition, are also separated by the conjunct 'on the other hand' which is another signal of Contrast. In this way, by looking at the G-P relation the kind of Matching can be identified.

In most cases in my data I have found that the General-Particular Relation established is based on Matching Contrast. One useful test to see if the relation is one of this type is to include the item 'different' modifying the Enumerable in the G-member. For instance, in the following example this item can modify the Enumerable 'levels', as the intention of the author is to emphasise the contrast existing among the members of the lexical realization.

- (33) In any spoken text there are at least **four**  
 [different] levels of organization-phonology,  
 grammar, discourse and non-linguistic.  
 (Coulthard, 1977:6)

Another way of testing if the relation is one of Matching Contrast is to use paraphrases. Here, I distinguish **Absolute Contrast**, relations that can be paraphrased using the conjunct 'on the contrary', from **Relative Contrast**, relations that can be paraphrased by means of the conjuncts 'on the other hand' and 'by contrast'.

The following is an example of Absolute Contrast,

(106) This class may be further divided into two sub-sets:

- i) *Illocutionary nouns* These are nouns which refer semantically to illocutionary acts: they have the component + VERBAL COMMUNICATION, or some such feature in their semantic structure. ...
- ii) *Verbal activity nouns* These do not refer to illocutionary acts, but they refer to some kind of verbal activity or the results thereof: they have the component + VERBAL ACTIVITY in their semantic structure. ...  
(Francis, 1987:9-11)

which can be paraphrased as follows:

Illocutionary nouns are nouns which refer semantically to illocutionary acts: they have the component + VERBAL COMMUNICATION, or some such feature in their semantic structure.... On the contrary, verbal activity nouns do not refer semantically to illocutionary nouns but refer to some kind of verbal activity ...

It can be seen, in this case, that the use of the negative in 'do not refer' is an important feature that emphasises the absolute contrast, i.e. that the opposite is true. In my data, I have very few cases like this, and they seem to be cases of Contrast in which some kind of classificatory principle is involved. For this reason, Classificatory Enumerables such as 'classes', 'groups' and 'sets' are the likeliest Enumerables that may anticipate this kind of Matching Relation.

Besides, there is a large number of cases of Enumerables which predict Relative Contrast Matching Relations, i.e. relations that can be paraphrased, as I said above, using the conjuncts 'on the other hand' or 'by contrast'. In these

relations there is no denial of the truth of what preceded, but an emphasis on the contrast, that is of the existence of different elements among the members of the enumeration. The following is an example:

- (39) The A-noun may combine with a reference item in two ways. First, it may be modified by it as ... Second, it may be the complement of the reference item, in which case the A member takes the form...  
(Francis, 1987:27-8)

which can be paraphrased using the conjunct 'on the other hand' in this way:

The A-noun may combine with a reference item being modified by it as ..... On the other hand, it may be the complement of the reference item in which case...

The Relative Contrast Matching Relation is the one that seems to be most commonly predicted by Enumerables. So, in the example

- (107) Fergusson (1959) suggests that speakers of Swiss German, Arabic, Greek and Tamil are faced with a similar choice, this time between two standard languages - a *high* form typically used in sermons, speeches, lectures, news broadcasts, and a *low* variety used in conversation, political and academic discussion, folk literature.  
(Coulthard, 1977:34)

a Technical Enumeral 'standard languages' anticipates the Relative Contrast Relation. In this other example a relation of the same type is anticipated by the System Enumerable 'aspects'.

- (108) He suggests that an adequate approach must distinguish and investigate four aspects of competence: systematic potential, appropriateness, occurrence, feasibility. By systematic potential he refers to 'whether and to what extent something is not yet realized' and suggests that 'it is to this class that Chomsky in effect reduces competences'...

Appropriateness includes 'whether and to what extent something is in some context suitable, effective or the like'... A speaker's competence also includes knowledge about occurrence, 'whether and to what extent something is done'... The final dimension feasibility is concerned with 'whether and to what extent something is possible'.

(Coulthard, 1977:30-1)

The last three examples of General-Particular based on Matching Contrast presented above, however, are not examples of the General-Example Relation but examples of the other type of G-P Relation: the Preview-Detail. Again, in one of the examples of this Relation that Hoey (1983) presents an Enumerable is acting as head of the G-member, which he calls the Preview.

- (1) I think that the language of verse may be divided into three kinds. (2) The first and highest is poetry proper, the language of inspiration... (3) The second kind I call Parnassian. (4) It can only be spoken by poets, but it is not in the highest sense poetry... (5) The third kind is merely the language of verse as distinct from that of prose, Delphic, the tongue of the Sacred Plain, I may call it, used in common by poet and poetaster.

(Hoey, 1983:139)

where the members of the lexical realization provide the Details. Furthermore according to Hoey (1983) 'the Details of a Preview-Detail Relation may be Matched, partially Matched or Unmatched'. The examples I presented above are instances of



Matched or Partially Matched Details. Nevertheless, I have found also cases in which the details, in the P-members are unmatched in Hoey's terms.

Most of my examples of Unmatched Detail are similar to the case presented by Hoey himself.

- 7-21 (1) We first explain three technical terms which are needed.
- (2) *Ordinate*. An *ordinate of the graph* is a line drawn from a point on it parallel to the speed axis and extending to the time axis.
  - (3) *Area under the graph*. An *area under the graph* is an area bounded by the time axis, the graph itself, and by two ordinates.
  - (4) *Gradient*. By the *gradient of a line* we mean the ratio between the number of units of speed parallel to the speed axis and the corresponding number of units of time parallel to the time axis.

(Hoey, 1983:150)

Hoey said about this example:

The Preview 'three technical terms which are needed' is in object position in Sentence 1, the subject, adjunct and verb forming with it a signalling sentence. Indeed one way in which signalling sentences might be incorporated into the organization of discourse might be via the Preview-Detail Relation ... To begin with, each of the Detail sentences is providing particulars of a 'technical term which is needed'. Moreover, there is a symmetry of presentation typical of a Matching Relation in sentences 2-4 (a symmetry which becomes still stronger if 4 is paraphrased 'a gradient of a line is the ratio... etc'); this symmetry stems from the fact that all three sentences answer the same question, 'Give me the details of a technical term which is needed'. Were the signalling sentence to be removed, furthermore the passage would collapse.

The important point to notice here is that despite the superficial features in common with Matching Relations elsewhere discussed, sentences 2-4 are not in a Matching Relation because (i) they cannot be connected to each other by a question of the form 'Is what is true of x true of y?' or 'Compare x with y in

respect of  $z'$ , and (2) paraphrase sentences of the denial or compatibility type cannot be inserted between the sentences.

(Hoey, 1983:150)

Hoey concludes by saying that the connection between the details is due to their shared connection with the Preview.

Hoey's conclusion has led me to see the phenomenon of Unmatched Detail in a different way. I would like to suggest that although there is no relation either of Contrast or Compatibility, this relation could be called Matching by Inclusion. Examples of Matching by Inclusion from my own data are provided below.

The first one includes the VCPRN 'points' in the G-member,

- (29) With respect to their cohesive role, two initial points must be made. The first is that cohesion is not achieved by the Anoun alone but by a combination of an A-noun and a definite reference item ...

The second point is that the classes of A-noun, taken together bear some resemblance to the class of 'General Nouns' identified by Halliday and Hasan (1976) ...

(Francis, 1987:27)

and in the next one the Text Enumerable 'utterances' occurs in the G-member.

- (51) In each of the following utterances, Searle suggests, the speaker expresses the proposition that John will leave the room, that is, he predicates the action of leaving the room of John ...

Will John leave the room?

John will leave the room.

John leave the room!

If John leaves the room, I will also leave.

(Coulthard, 1977:22)

I suspect that not all types of Enumerables anticipate a Matching by Inclusion but the ones belonging to the categories of Exemplificatory nouns ('examples', 'cases', etc); Text nouns ('utterances', 'sentences', etc); VCPRNs ('points', 'remarks', etc) and Metalinguistic Technical nouns ('nouns', 'moves', etc). The reason for this seems to be the fact that all these nouns are strictly metalinguistic. I believe that a deeper analysis of the metalinguistic aspect of these nouns could prove to be a fertile area for future research. Unfortunately, an investigation of this kind is beyond the scope of this dissertation.

To conclude, this discussion has demonstrated that Enumerables can be important elements for establishing General-Particular Relations, ie the hyponymic function of language. This leads me back to the second chapter where the relation between Enumerables and the notions of Unspecific/Specific was analyzed in depth, as Winter (1989) says about the General-Particular relation that: 'this is merely a special case of Unspecific/Specific (p.11).

### 3.4. Enumerable-like Discourse Items and the Phenomenon of Discourse Functional Collocations

The purpose of this section is to present some discourse items such as 'difference' and 'differ' which may fulfill the same

discursive roles as those of Enumerables and which sometimes may appear environmentally related to them.

The first discourse item to be analysed is the noun 'difference' (This item as well as 'differ', 'distinguish', 'distinction' were identified by Winter (1977) as Vocabulary 3 items). When this item appears in an environment in which the two or more terms of difference (or contrast) are presented as new, the role played by 'difference' is very similar to that of Enumerables. For instance, in the environment 'A major difference between Austin and Searle lies in the derivation of the illocutionary force of of an utterance', leaves the reader with the expectation that this difference will be discursively realized. So then the author disentangles the created expectation presenting the positions of the two language philosophers. Consider:

- (109) A major difference between Austin and Searle lies in the derivation of the illocutionary force of a utterance. - Austin argues it as the succesful realisation of the speaker's intention. Searle that it is the product of of the listener's interpretation of the utterance.

(Coulthard, 1977:24)

As can be seen in the example, the use of 'difference' in this environment predicts an enumeration: the ideas of the two authors listed one after the other. It also anticipates a Matching Relation of Contrast, between the members of the enumeration, as they could be paraphrased using the subjunct 'on the other hand'. Finally, the use of 'difference' organizes the

discourse, the organizational value working at intersentential level. It is important to point out, however, that the force of the anticipation is not as strong as the force of Enumerables.

Among my data, I have some other examples of the role played by the discourse item 'difference'. In the following case, for example, the item works at intra-sentential level.

- (110) The concept of style may seem very close to that of register but there is a crucial **difference**: registers are mainly defined and recognized by topic and context-specific lexis - the register of sermons is the language used in giving sermons; styles, however, as the rules of alternation emphasize, are not mechanically connected to particular situations - a speaker may choose among styles and their choices have social meaning.

(Coulthard, 1977:37)

However when the item 'difference' appears in its plural form, i.e. 'differences' modified or not by a numeral, it is not an enumerable like item but an actual Enumerable.

Enumerables, as has already been suggested, can connect either sentences or parts of sentences; or they connect adjacent sections of a text. In the following piece of discourse the noun 'difference' in the nominal phrase 'the other basic difference' plays this latter role.

- (111) In addition to comparison and connection, many A-nouns coincide with Winter's Vocabulary 3 items: some examples are antithesis, conclusion, contradiction, deduction, denial, distinction, explanation, hypothesis, parallel, point, repetition, statement and truth. Vocabulary 3, however, is a group which includes nouns, verbs, adjectives etc. - i.e. all items which can explicate a clause relation either cataphorically

or anaphorically - whereas A-nouns are of course always anaphoric. Moreover they do not always refer to clause relations in Winter's sense: they often label a whole network of such relations as say an argument or a theory.

The other basic difference is that, as has been seen, A-nouns often add something new to the argument in terms of attitudinal meaning: they do more than merely label their X-members.

(Francis, 1986:68)

This example shows the use of 'difference' playing a more complex role than that of *Enumerable*, as it not only anticipates its lexical realisation but also refers anaphorically to the previous stretch of discourse playing the role of an A-noun (Francis, 1987). Besides, 'difference' does not predict enumeration, as in the other cases, but a statement of the difference in which although there is a comparison 'they do more than', just one of the compared elements is mentioned: A-nouns. This shows that there are certain cases in which the item 'difference' does not behave in the same way as *Enumerables*.

The second discourse item that may play a similar role is the verb 'to differ'. Obviously, this item is semantically related to the one analysed before. The following is a case in which, due to the use of this verb, an enumeration is predicted and also a Matching Relation of Contrast is anticipated and this is then realized at intrasentential level.

- (112) The cultural implication of an inappropriate use of a particular genre like prayer may of course differ, in one culture the result may be laughter, in another death.

(Coulthard, 1977:39)

The following example, however, is one instance in which no enumeration is to follow, and the difference is only stated not discursively realized.

- (113) Classid 'Ownerless' nouns. These are nouns which refer to the 'ownerless' results of cognitive states and processes. They differ from the nouns in all the other classes in that they are not associated with a particular writer or source.  
(Francis, 1986:17)

Here, there are no explicit elements of comparison, but the use of the negation establishes the Contrast, ie there is an implicit Matching.

The noun 'distinction', in one of its meanings, is another discourse item whose discourse role seems to be similar to that of Enumerables. Again, here, I have found cases in which the members of the lexical realization appear intrasententially, intersententially, or as organizers of larger stretches of discourse, e.g. paragraphs. The example presented below is one in which the members are realized intrasententially.

- (114) Hoey makes a second distinction, that between 'questions that elicit a larger passage of the discourse and questions that elicit a smaller passage of a discourse (p.29), in other words, between high level and low level questions, ...  
(Francis, 1986:87)

In this case, the Matching Contrast Relation is explicitly signalled by the dichotomies 'larger/smaller and high level/low level.

In this other instance, where the lexical realizations are also established at intrasentential level, the contrast is signalled by the use of the subordinator 'whereas' with the help of the verb 'to differ'.

- (115) This is the distinction between 'extended reference' and 'text reference':

~~Whereas~~ extended reference differs from usual instances of reference only in extent - the referent is more than ... - text reference differs in kind: the referent ...

(Francis, 1986:30)

Using this example, I can put forward the hypothesis that many of the words under analysis here have a strong tendency to appear combined among themselves. This is essentially due to the fact that the functions that they discursively play are very similar. In the same way as collocations exist among certain words within sentences, in larger stretches of discourse a similar phenomenon can be found. I will call these associations Discourse Functional Collocations. The example presented above shows another instance of this phenomenon, in which there is an association between the item 'distinction' and the enumerable 'planes' modified by the numeral 'two'.

- (116) Cooper (1983) sums up the distinction between the two planes as follows:

The interactive plane is prospective in that...

The interpretative or autonomous plane is retrospective in that ...

(Francis, 1987:34)



In have found in my data many cases of the use of 'distinction' predicting the realization of the members of the enumeration both at intersentential level and between larger discourse stretches, the example below is one in which the second member is realized as a separate paragraph.

- (117) Vendler (1980) makes another distinction within factivity, a more interesting one for the purposes of this discussion. He proposes, first, that ..... (long paragraph)  
 With 'know' on the other hand, we are talking about the facts themselves .....  
 (Francis, 1986:20)

However, there are certain cases where, as with some examples of other discourse items presented above, the item 'distinction' does not predict and it is not realized in the form of enumeration but as a statement that explains it. See the following example:

- (118) The distinction between Vocabulary 3 items and 'truly open-ended lexical items (p.26) lies in the concept of lexical realization".  
 (Francis, 1986:64)

The verb 'to distinguish' is another discourse item worth mentioning here. Consider the following:

- (119) For this reason, Austin feels it necessary to distinguish between perlocutionary object, basically the intended result of the illocutionary act and perlocutionary sequel, the unintended result.  
 (Coulthard, 1977:19)

where the contrast between the members of the enumeration is established intrasententially by the opposition intended/unintended.

In the various examples found among my data there is a high rate of occurrence of this verb together with Enumerables. This would be another instance of what I have labelled Discourse Functional Collocations. This is one case:

- (41) Sinclair (1981) distinguishes two major aspects of language in use, which he calls the autonomous and interactive planes of discourse. The autonomous is concerned with...

The interactive plane concerns the real time...  
(Francis, 1986:33-4)

The noun 'division' also has an Enumerable like role in discourse. Like the other discourse items already mentioned, it may anticipate enumerations whose members are in a Matching Contrast Relationship. In the following example, the classificatory function of this item can be clearly appreciated.

- (120) For example, a broad semantic division has been drawn between 'utterance' nouns and 'cognition' nouns ... At one end of the cline are the purely illocutionary nouns (with illocutionary cognate verbs) like claim and statement which must refer to the illocutionary force of speech acts. At the other end are the purely cognitive nouns like belief and idea ...

(Francis, 1986:9-10)

and where the contrast is also signalled by the expressions 'at one end' and 'at the other end'.

Semantically related to 'division', the verb 'to divide' also has a similar role. See the example below, in which there is an environmental combination of 'to divide' and the 'numeral + Enumerable' pair 'two information units'.

- (10) The A-member can be divided into two information units, one of which is the A-noun itself, presented as the *given* and signalling the writer's incorporation of a preceding stretch of discourse into the ongoing argument ....

The rest of the A-member must be presented as *new* in relation to the A-noun [examples follow].

(Francis, 1986:31-2)

This is another instance of the phenomenon which I have labelled Discourse Functional Collocations. Notice, in this example, that one of the members of the lexical realization gives rise to a new paragraph.

In the next example, the verb 'to divide' is also used together with a numeral + Enumerable pair, in this case 'two sub-sets'.

- (106) This class may be further divided into two sub-sets

- i) Illocutionary nouns: ....
- ii) Verbal activity nouns: ....

(Francis, 1986:13-4)

Here again the classificatory function of this item can be seen. Unlike the example presented before, in which there are two "technical" nouns, "A-member" and "information units", in this case the two nouns are "system" nouns 'class' and 'sub-sets'. Although a classificatory principle is implied in the other

example, in this example the combination of "to divide" with the two system nouns renders the whole environment purely classificatory. The Matching Contrast Relation, then, is at the basis of the classification.

The verb 'to group', also in special environments mainly combined with Enumerables, has a discourse role similar to that of 'to divide'. This is one example:

(107) For illustrative purposes he focuses on indirect directives or requests, and suggests that all possible realizations can be usually grouped into six categories

1. Sentences concerning hearer's ability
2. Sentences concerning hearer's future action
3. Sentences concerning speaker's wish or want
4. Sentences concerning hearer's desire or willingness
5. Sentences concerning reasons for action
6. Sentences ...

(Coulthard, 1977:25-6)5

In spite of the fact that discursively 'to group' and 'to divide' play the same role, semantically they are not the same. While 'to divide' stresses the partition of the whole, 'to group' stresses the existence of the parts.

The verb 'to classify', within certain definite environments, also may play a role similar to that of 'to divide' and 'to group'. Obviously, this verb is a cognitive one which denotes the mental activity that I have claimed to be performed by the other two verbs. This is closely related to the fact that within Enumerables there is a class of 'classificatory nouns', such as 'classes', 'types', 'sets', 'groups', etc., which is specially used for discursive classificatory purposes.

Consider the following example:

- (121) Leach (1981:302) classifies a predicate as  
 factive, non-factive or counter-factive,  
 'according to whether it ascribes factuality,  
 non-factuality or counterfactuality to the  
 associated subordinate predication' 'Realise',  
 'suspect' and 'pretend' illustrate three  
 possibilities

[examples follow]

(Francis, 1987:20)

Another discourse item that may also be used to predict enumerations and anticipate Matching Relations is the verb 'to compare'. Matching Relations are in fact relations of comparison, where the terms are matched either for contrast or for similarity. Let's analyse one instance:

- (122) Frake (1972) compares litigation among the  
 Subanun and the Takan. For both litigation is an  
 integral speech event concerned with settling  
 disputes by means of a ruling formulated by  
 neutral judges'. The major difference is not in  
 the event itself but in its place in the overall  
 structure of the cultures.

(Coulthard, 1977:42-3)

in which both the similarity and the contrast are not discursively realized in the form of enumeration but are stated. The item 'both' is signalling the similarity and 'difference' the contrast.

Up to now, I have presented discourse items that may discursively act in the same way as Enumerables by anticipating Matching Contrast. There are, however, some other discourse items that, under certain environmental conditions, may act like

Enumerables anticipating Matching By Inclusion. Consider the following example in which the item 'to include' appears.

- (123) Under this heading Duncan **includes** 'sentence completions', 'requests for clarification', and 'brief statements', all of which for Sacks would be complete turns - ...  
(Coulthard, 1977:62)

In this case, the verb 'to include' itself demonstrates that inclusion is the principle that matches the members of the lexical realization, i.e. the noun phrases 'sentence completions', 'requests for clarification' and 'brief statements'.

The verb 'to consist of', on the other hand, although in a rather different way, also may predict the coming of enumerations. Generally, this verb is associated with Enumerables, thus being another instance of Discourse Functional Collocations. Let's analyse one example:

- (104) ... while the third, 'follow-up' move typically the teacher's is concerned with fitting the reply into the ongoing discourse, can **consist of up to** three acts - an accept, which takes the information offered into the discourse, an evaluation which assesses its worth and relevance and a comment which contributes new related information.  
(Coulthard, 1977:107)

In this example the discourse item 'consist of' combines with the 'numeral + Enumerable' phrase 'three acts'. Then, the members are lexically realized in the form of enumeration. The members are, thus, since there are no explicit markers of

contrast, matched for similarity, the converging point being the fact that they are all members of the same whole, in this case the 'follow-up' move. Contrastingly, in this other case, the inclusion of the adjective 'distinct' establishes, apart from the Matching of inclusion, a Matching Contrast Relation among the members of the Enumeration.

- (124) Thus scientific explanations consists of two distinct sentences of locutions, one being an observation or prediction, the other a generalization.

(Coulthard, 1977:147)

The verb 'to comprise' may also have a similar role. This is an example:

- (125) The basic system comprises ten categories, seven for teacher talk, two for pupil talk, and one for 'silence or confusion'.

(table follows)

(Coulthard, 1977:14)

It is interesting to point out that these two verbs 'consist of' and 'comprise' are said to be 'verbs of equivalence' by Hoey (1983:146).

### 3.5. Enumerables as Organizational Devices: a Practical Example

At the beginning of this chapter when I reviewed Winter and Hoey's ideas on discourse I said that Clause Relations are the basis of discourse organization. Having demonstrated that

Enumerables are Vocabulary 3 items, anticipators of Matching Relations on which the larger General-Particular Relation is built, I can now put this fact in other terms: Enumerables are important discourse organizational devices. In Chapter I, I showed how Enumerables work on two levels: intra-sentential, and inter-sentential. The first level of organization, intra-sentential, is syntactical, Enumerables, thus, organizing the clause constituents.

The second level, inter-sentential, that goes over the level of the sentence itself, works sometimes organizing two or more sentences or even discourse units such as paragraphs (see 1.3.2.1. Analysis of V Members). Going upwards in discourse organization, I have discovered that Enumerables may be important organizational devices in sections, chapters and even in the organization of complete discourse such as books.

I present here, one section of a chapter from Coulthard (1977, Chapter I, pp.3-7), the organization of which depends heavily on Enumerables.

(31)

#### **Early attempts at discourse analysis**

Although Firth urged linguists to study the total verbal process in its context of situation he did not do so himself, choosing rather to concentrate on phonology. In the intervening period there are only two isolated attempts to study supra-sentential structure, one based on a written text, by Harris, the other based on a collection of spoken texts, by Mitchell.



Harris's article, although it has the promising title 'Discourse Analysis' is in fact disappointing. Working within the Bloomfieldian tradition he sets out to produce a formal method 'for the analysis of connected speech or writing' which 'does not depend on the analyst's knowledge of the particular meaning of each morpheme.' He observes that in grammar it is possible to set up word classes distributionally and produce a class of adjectives A which occur before a class of nouns N; such a statement captures a powerful generalisation, even though it is possible to show that a particular member of the class A, 'voluntary' may never occur before a particular member of the class N 'subjugation'.

Harris suggests that a distributional analysis can be successfully applied to a whole text to discover structuring above the rank of sentence. As an example he creates a text containing the following four sentences,

The trees turn here about the middle of autumn.  
 The trees turn here about the end of October.  
 The first frost comes after the middle of autumn.  
 We start heating after the end of October.

The aim of the analysis is to isolate units of text which are distributionally equivalent though not necessarily similar in meaning; that is *equivalences* which have validity for that text alone. From the first two sentences above one establishes the equivalence of 'the middle of autumn' and 'the end of October', not because they are similar in meaning but because they share an identical environment, 'the trees turn here'. The next step is to carry over the equivalences derived from the first two sentences into the next two and this allows us to equate 'the first frost comes' with 'we start heating' and of course both with 'the trees turn here' which provided the original context. Thus, in terms of equivalence classes, all four sentences have identical structure, class X followed by class Y. The analyst progresses in this way through the text creating a chain of equivalences and occasionally, as required, introducing a new class until the whole of the text has been divided into units assigned to one or other of the classes.

Harris points out that in evaluating his approach the only relevant questions are 'whether the method is usable and whether it leads to valid and interesting results.' In the twenty years since the article was published no one has adapted or developed the method, apparently because the results were not interesting. It may well be that any purely formal analysis above the rank of sentence is

impossible. Certainly, as Harris himself observes, it is impossible to describe the structure of paragraphs in terms of sequences of sentences of particular types—the constraints above the sentence are stylistic not grammatical, and organisation and sequence can only be described in semantic terms. For example, a text which from a grammatical viewpoint consists simply of a sequence of clauses with no obvious patterning may from a semantic or functional viewpoint be seen to consist of a sequence of question-answer pairs.

In marked contrast to Harris, Mitchell's 'Buying and selling in Cyrenaica' presents a semantically motivated analysis. Working in the Firthian tradition he specifies the relevant elements of situation and relevant participants in detail and divides the buying-selling process into *stages* on purely semantic criteria, admitting that 'stage is an abstract category and the numbering of stages does not necessarily imply sequence in time.' He describes three major categories of transaction—market auctions; other market transactions; shop transactions—although the second and third are distinguished mainly by situation as they share the following five stages:

1. salutation
2. enquiry as to the object of sale
3. investigation of the object of sale
4. bargaining
5. conclusion

This is an ideal structure: sometimes stages 1 and 2 do not occur and stages 3 and 5 may be realised non-verbally. The following is an example of a shop transaction:

<i>Personality</i>	<i>Translation</i>	<i>Stage</i>
BUYER:	Have you a bed to sell?	2
SELLER:	I've got one but it's rather expensive.	2
BUYER:	Let me have a look at it then.	2
SELLER:	Certainly.	
	If you want it for yourself I will make you a reduction.	4
BUYER:	How much is it?	4
SELLER:	£4.	4
BUYER:	What's your last price?	4
SELLER:	Believe me if it were anyone but you I'd ask him five.	4
BUYER:	I'll make you a firm offer of £3.50.	4
SELLER:	Impossible, let it stay where it is.	4
BUYER:	Listen. I'll come this afternoon, pay you £3.70 and take it.	4
(Buyer crosses threshold of shop on his way out.)		
SELLER:	It still wants some repairs.	5

While this analysis captures some of the structure of the transaction it is arguable that it is not a linguistic analysis at all—the stages are defined and recognised by the activity that occurs within them rather than by characteristic linguistic features and, with the possible exception of stage 4, which when opened by the buyer begins invariably with the formula 'How much', there are no *linguistic* markers of the transition between stages. Once the stages have been isolated non-linguistically, Mitchell then *characterises* them linguistically by providing examples of the kinds of phrases and clauses, often ritual, which occur within them.

In any spoken text there are at least four major levels of organisation—*phonology*, *grammar*, *discourse* and *non-linguistic*. The structure in each of these levels can be expressed in terms of small units combining to form larger units—within phonology and grammar, the traditional concerns of linguistics, the labels and structure of the units are well established; within discourse nothing is certain: there are no agreed labels and few agreed structures. For exemplificatory purposes in the figure below the descriptive units proposed by Sinclair et al (1972) are used, but one could substitute similar terms from other systems. (The figure attempts to show roughly the size relationship between units in different levels.)

<i>Phonology</i>	<i>Grammar</i>	<i>Discourse</i> (Sinclair et al)	<i>Non-Linguistic</i> (Mitchell)
phoneme			
syllable			
foot	morpheme		
	word		
	group		
tone group	clause		
	sentence	act	
		move	
		exchange	
		transaction	stage
			transaction

Figure 1

As there are four levels of organisation in any text one can obviously provide four complementary descriptions of the same text. What is missing from Mitchell's analysis is any description of the *supra-sentential linguistic* structure; the description of overall organisation of these transactions is in non-linguistic terms—they consist of a series of stages characterised non-linguistically. How-

ever, if the small amount of linguistic evidence provided is representative it should be possible to describe the discourse structure. For instance, both examples of stage 2, *enquiry*, consist of a sequence of Question-Answer pairs and *salutation*, when it occurs, involves a contribution from both speakers. This is an instance of linguistic, not non-linguistic structure—the occurrence of one linguistic item, an utterance or part of an utterance, constrains the choices open to the next speaker.

The structure, or constraints on the next speaker, cannot be expressed in *grammatical* terms however; the linguistic *form* of the utterance is almost irrelevant; what is structurally important is its linguistic *function* and it is evidence of this kind which points to the existence of another level, *discourse*, between grammar and non-linguistic organisation. Sequences, which from a grammatical viewpoint are a random succession of clauses of different types can be seen from a functional viewpoint to be highly structured.

As can be seen the title of the section includes a plural noun which belongs to the category of UCPRNs: 'attempts'. (It is suggested that it is very common to find Enumerables in headings and sub-headings). Later on, this Enumerable appears within Environment I (EI)

In the intervening period there are only two isolated attempts to study supra-sentential structure,

and then it is lexically realized intra-sententially

one based on a written text, by Harris; the other based on a collection of spoken texts by Mitchell.

where the two members are matched, the Matching being signalled by syntactic and lexical parallelism and by the antithetical pair written/spoken. The first member of the lexical realization beginning 'Harris's article...' is then expanded as this is a Split Construction (see 1.3.2.1.). This expansion, four paragraphs long, ends when the expansion of the second member begins

In marked contrast to Harris, Mitchell's 'Buying and selling in Cyrenaica' presents a semantically motivated analysis. (p.4)

where the Matching Contrast established between the two members of the lexical realization is signalled by 'marked contrast' at the beginning of the second six paragraph long expanded member. This second member goes up to the end of the section. In this way the whole section organization depends on the Enumerable 'attempts'.

This last example closes down this dissertation by practically showing my central thesis: the discursive organization value of Enumerables.

## CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

ENUMERABLES, as this dissertation demonstrates, are important discourse organization devices. I have basically shown this in three stages:

### 1) As Enumeration Predicting Devices

Departing from Tadros's initial ideas, I have reshaped the original concept pointing out that: Enumerability is a potential discursive characteristic of certain types of plural noun, provided they appear within either of which I have called Environment I (EI), or Environment II (EII), or Environment III (EIII). When those nouns meet any of these three requirements, they can be said to be Enumerables as they predict the realization of two or more discourse items, ie enumeration.

In this stage, I have also included a detailed description of adjectives ('two', 'many', 'certain', etc.) and nominal constructions ('a number of', 'a series of', etc.) which act as modifiers of Enumerables. These words and expressions were shown

to be Discourse Cataphoric Reference Items, a fact that is not included in grammar books. This has a theoretical implication, as it shows how the relatively new trends of discourse analysis can combine with traditional linguistics to throw new light on linguistic phenomena.

Furthermore, I have also presented a traditional linguistic analysis of both the V members (the clauses or constructions where Enumerables occur), and the D members (the elements of the enumeration). I have found out that the predictive force of Enumerables works both at intra-sentential level (syntactical), and at inter-sentential level.

## 2) As Unspecific Discourse Items

Enumerables cannot be any plural nouns but Unspecific (Winter: 1989). The second stage explores the Unspecificity of Enumerables, showing that there are two types of Unspecific noun: System (inherently Unspecific) and Technical (contextually Unspecific).

In this stage, I have also demonstrated the close relation that exists between Unspecific items and Staging (Brown & Yule, 1983) by suggesting that the Prominence factor (one of the factors of Staging) is essential for rendering an item Unspecific, and as a consequence, predictive. A study of paragraph structure on these lines could give new insights into text-organization. It is suggested that Enumerables appearing paragraph initial position are the commonest. Interestingly, in text-books on writing, in many cases, the so-called topic-sentences have Enumerables as heads. One example is Imhoof and

Hudson (1975) a text for essay-writing in which most of the examples present topic-sentences where Enumerables occur. One example is the following:

To be successful in a job interview (or for that matter in almost any interview situation), the applicant should demonstrate certain personal and professional qualities. In as much the first and often lasting impression of a person is determined by the clothes he wears, the job applicant should take care to appear well groomed and modestly dressed, avoiding the extremes of too elaborate or too casual attire. Besides, care for personal appearance, he should pay close attention to his manner of speaking, which should be neither ostentatious nor familiar but rather straightforward, grammatically accurate, and friendly. In addition, he should be prepared to talk knowledgeably about the requirements of the position for which he is applying in relation to his own professional experience and interests. And finally, the really impressive applicant must convey a sense of self-confidence and enthusiasm for work, factors all interviewers value highly. The job seeker who displays these characteristics, with just a little luck, will certainly succeed in the typical personnel interview.

(p.11)

Besides, Enumerables both System and Technical are constant features in the titles and sub-titles of academic texts. Remember that for Brown and Yule (1983) these were also considered 'staging devices'. The relation between Enumerables and topic-sentences, and Enumerables and titles and sub-titles could be two interesting topics for further research.

The taxonomy of Enumerables, on the other hand, divided into System and Technical, offers a picture of the different types of Enumerables. Among them, the group of nouns I have labelled 'Wild Nouns' such as 'features', 'levels', etc. can also be a fruitful area for further research.



### 3) As Vocabulary 3 Items

My basic assumption here is that Enumerables are what Winter and Hoey call Vocabulary 3 items. As such they anticipate Matching Relations of two kinds: Matching Contrast and Matching by Inclusion, on which the larger General-Particular Relations are built. This is the organizational role of Enumerables, as they play an important role in text: they organize its ideas and help the reader follow the text's argument. This organizational role seems to work at various levels, from sentences to larger structures of discourse.

Furthermore, in this third stage I have shown that there is a series of items 'distinction', 'division', 'to divide', etc. that can either fulfill the same role as Enumerables or appear in sentences together with them. I have called the occurrence of two or more discourse items together which fulfill the same role Discourse Functional Collocations. The study of this phenomenon could be another interesting topic for further research.

As my main interest in this study was to investigate the organizational value of Enumerables, I disregarded looking at them from another point of view that can give new insights into this discursive phenomenon: Genre Analysis (Dudley-Evans, 1986). As Enumerables seem to be constant features of academic discourse as a whole, it would be interesting to look at them within academic genres such as dissertation abstracts, introductions and conclusions, paper abstracts, etc. A study of Enumerables from this point of view raises a number of questions

- Enumerables can function as discourse cross-reference indicators (see 2.2.10). Do the genres which seem to be characterized by this feature make use of Enumerables?
- The two main functions of Enumerables seem to be CLASSIFICATORY and EXEMPLIFICATORY. Has this any relevance in the study of Genre Analysis?
- Another function of Enumerables seems to be SUMMARIZING. Is this important to Genre Analysis?
- Are there any sections of academic discourse such as abstracts or introductions in which Enumerables are likeliest to occur?

These are just some of the many questions that the relation between Enumerable and Genre Analysis may arise.

Unfortunately, the data used to test the hypotheses of this dissertation belongs to one field of science: Human Science, mainly Discourse Analysis. To test more thoroughly the validity of them, it would be very important to research the phenomenon in other fields as well and/or to use a larger corpus, especially a computer based one.

Finally, this study of Enumerables may have implications for the teaching of Reading and Writing Skills. To develop awareness of the organizational role played by Enumerables can be an important strategy to improve text-comprehension. On the other hand, to show the importance of the hyponymic function of Enumerables, the different semantico-pragmatic nouns and their discursive functions, as well as the relation between Enumerables and prominence (Unspecific/Specific relation) can

help writing students to develop certain types of writing strategies. It is suggested, however, that for pedagogic aims, an integral picture of Vocabulary 3 items should be taught, including items of Metalanguage such as 'Situation', 'Problem', 'Solution', 'Evaluation' and A-nouns, together with Enumerables.

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